

E12690



HUTCHINSON'S HISTORY OF THE NATIONS

A Popular, Concise, Pictorial, and
Authoritative Account of each Nation
from the earliest times to the present day

Edited by

WALTER HUTCHINSON, M.A., F.R.G.S., F.R.A.I.
(BARRISTER-AT-LAW)



VOL. II.

CONTAINING

755 BLACK & WHITE ILLUSTRATIONS
13 COLOURED PLATES AND 11 MAPS

Contributors to this Volume

ISRAEL ABRAHAMS, M.A., Litt.D., D.D.

PROFESSOR JAMES SMITH REID, M.A., LL.M., Litt.D.

EDWARD FOORD.

ARTHUR HASSALL, M.A.

SIR RICHARD TEMPLE, BART., C.I.E.

PROFESSOR JOSEPH HENRY LONGFORD, B.A.

LONDON: HUTCHINSON & CO.



*Printed at the Chapel River Press,
Kingston-on-Thames.*

CONTENTS OF VOL. II.

CHAP.	PAGE
X.—THE JEWS. BY DR. I. ABRAHAMS:	
<i>Dates of Jewish History</i>	545
XI.—THE ROMANS. BY PROFESSOR J. S. REID:	
<i>Dates of Roman History (to 61 B.C.)</i>	509
<i>Dates of Roman History (59 B.C. to 410 A.D.)</i>	709
XII.—THE ROMANS (<i>continued</i>). BY EDWARD FOORD:	
<i>Dates of the Later Roman Empire</i>	767
THE LATER ROMAN (BYZANTINE) EMPIRE	768
XIII.—THE FRENCH. BY ARTHUR HASSALL, M.A.:	
<i>Dates of French History</i>	803, 849, 929
THE RISE AND FALL OF THE CARLOVINGIANS	800
THE VICTORY OF FEUDALISM, 987-1108	809
THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ROYAL POWER FROM 1108	812
THE EPOCH OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1285-1453	818
THE RESTORATION OF THE MONARCHY, 1453-1559	832
THE RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE, 1559-1598	841
THE GROWTH OF THE BOURBON MONARCHY, 1600-1689	849
THE FIRST STAGES OF THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1688-1715	872
INTERLUDE IN THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1715-1740	880
THE CLIMAX IN THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1740-1763	892
THE DYING MONARCHY, 1763-1789	904
THE REVOLUTION, 1789-1799	909
THE CONSULATE AND THE EMPIRE, 1799-1814	918
THE RECOVERY OF FRANCE, 1815-1856	931
THE SUPREMACY OF FRANCE, 1856-1870	940
FRANCE AFTER THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR, 1871-1914	947
XIV.—THE PERSIANS. BY SIR RICHARD TEMPLE, BART., C.I.E.:	
<i>Dates of Persian History</i>	957
XV.—THE JAPANESE. BY JOSEPH H. LONGFORD:	
<i>Dates of Japanese History</i>	1005

ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

COLOURED PLATES

THE VISIT OF THE QUEEN OF SHEBA TO KING SOLOMON	<i>Facing p.</i> 520
THE EXPULSION OF THE JEWS FROM SPAIN	560
MARCELLUS' DUEL WITH VIRDUMARUS	600
A ROMAN CHARIOT RACE	640
"THE IDES OF MARCH"	680
A VISIT OF AGRIPPA TO AUGUSTUS	720
THE PROCLAMATION OF THE EDICT OF MILAN, A.D. 313	760
THE CAPTURE OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY CRUSADERS	800
THE BATTLE OF BOUVINES, 1214	840
CARDINAL RICHELIEU'S ARRIVAL AT LYONS	880
THE CHARGE OF THE CUIRASSIERS AT REZONVILLE, 1870	920
CAVALRY OF SHAHRBARAZ CHARGING	960
YORITOMO BECOMES SHOGUN A.D. 1192	1000

Contents of Vol. II.

MAPS

	PAGE
THE KINGDOMS OF JUDAH AND ISRAEL	528
THE EARLY PEOPLES OF ITALY	584
HANNIBAL'S ROUTE TO ITALY, 218 B.C.	636
THE ROMAN EMPIRE, 14 A.D.—117 A.D.	730
THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE	770
FEUDAL FRANCE IN 987	891
FRANCE AFTER THE TREATY OF BRETAGNY, 1360	891
FRANCE AT THE DEATH OF LOUIS XI., 1483	891
WESTERN EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY	891
PERSIA, ANCIENT AND MODERN	1004
THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN	1008

ILLUSTRATIONS IN THE TEXT

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
FRENCH, THE :		FRENCH, THE (<i>continued</i>)		FRENCH, THE (<i>continued</i>)	
Neolithic Man	799	Pastoral Staff Head	828	Château of Chenonceaux	856
The Age of Bronze and Iron	800	Processional Cross of Thirteenth Century	828	Château of Chambord	856
Celtic Pottery Workers	801	The Triumph of Etienne Marcel	829	The Château of Blois	856
The Iron Age in France	802	The Execution of the Maillotins	830	Anne Dubourg accused before Henry II., 1559	857
St. Denis preaching to the Gauls	805	Breviary of John, Duke of Burgundy (French, early fifteenth century)	831	An Interview between Ludwig Pflyffer and Charles IX., 1567	858
St. Geneviève brings Supplies to Paris during the Approach of Attila	806	Painted Ivory Polyptych	832	The English Embassy during the Massacre of St. Bartholomew	859
Attila advancing on Paris	808	"Stay, King, you are betrayed!"	833	Catherine de Médicis sees some of the Victims of the Massacre	860
The Ravages of Attila	809	The Great Porch of Beauvais Cathedral	834	Gaspard de Coligny, 1519-1572	861
The Death of St. Geneviève	810	The Capture of Orleans by Joan of Arc	835	Catherine de Médicis, 1519-1589	861
The Baptism of Clovis	811	Joan of Arc receives her Sword	836	Elizabeth of Austria, 1554-1592	861
The Battle of Tours	812	Joan of Arc taken Prisoner, 1430	837	Marguerite of Valois, 1553-1615	861
Submission of Witikind to Charlemagne	812	The Burning of Joan of Arc	838	Henry III. and the Duke of Guise at Blois	862
The Crowning of Charlemagne	813	The Entry of Louis XI. into Paris, 1461	839	Henry IV. amongst his People	863
Art in the Time of Charlemagne	814	Philip the Good, 1396-1467	840	Henry IV. before Paris	863
Charlemagne and his Scholars	815	Margaret of Scotland, 1425-1445	840	The Entry of Henry IV. into Paris, March 22nd, 1594	864
Eudes defends Paris against the Normans, 885	816	French Armour, 1400-1480	841	The Marriage by Proxy of Marie de Médicis	865
Saint Bruno refusing Gifts of Count Eudes	816	The Origin of the Manufacture of Silk Fabrics at Lyons	842	A Concert given by Cardinal Richelieu	866
The School of Abelard, 1079-1142	817	The Massacre at Nèfle by Charles the Bold, c. 1472	843	Richelieu on the Dyke at La Rochelle	867
Louis VI.'s First Charter to the Parisians	818	Interview between Maximilian of Austria and Mary of Burgundy	844	Richelieu on the Rhone	868
The Albigenses of Carcassonne	819	French Renaissance Art	845	The Duc D'Enghien, afterwards Prince de Condé, at the Battle of Rocroy, 1643	869
The Fortress of Carcassonne	820	The Tomb of Louis XII. and Anne of Brittany	846	Cardinal Mazarin, 1602-1661	870
Illustrated MS. (end of Thirteenth Century)	820	Henry III. of France instituting the Order of Saint Esprit	847	The Battle of Lens	870
The Childhood of St. Louis	821	John Calvin, 1509-1564	848	Representative Specimens of French Painting	871
A Relief of Château Gaillard	822	Tomb of Cardinal D'Amboise	848	The Peace of Münster	872
Limoges Enamel on Copper	822	The Battle of Marignan, 1515	851	Commemoration of the Peace of Münster, 1648	873
Saint Louis, 1214-1270	823	Francis I. bestows on Rosso Titles to a Canonry in Notre Dame	852	The Arrest of Broussel and the Leaders of the Opposition in the <i>Parlement</i>	874
The Battle of Taillebourg	824	Francis I. and Charles V. at the Abbey of St. Denis	853		
Saint Louis a Prisoner in Palestine	825	The Refusal of Henry to sign the Treaty of Passau, 1552	854		
Etienne Marcel before the Dauphin	826	The Siege of Metz	855		
Chartres Cathedral—West Front	827				
Notre Dame de Paris—West Front	827				
The Cathedral of Orleans	827				
Rheims Cathedral—West Front	827				

Illustrations in the Text

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
FRENCH, THE (continued)		FRENCH, THE (continued)		FRENCH, THE (continued)	
Reception of the Grand Condé by Louis XIV.	875	Louis Bonaparte	915	Charles Louis Napoleon Bonaparte	950
The Great Condé, 1621-1686	876	The Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria	915	The Empress Eugénie	950
The Passage of the Rhine by the French Army	876	Napoleon in Coronation Robes	915	An Execution of Communists in 1871	951
Cardinal Fleury, 1653-1743	877	The King of Rome	915	An Episode of the Franco-Prussian War in 1870	952
The Capture of Valenciennes by Louis XIV.	877	The Empress Josephine	915	A Charge of the French Cuirassiers	953
A Matinée	878	Joseph Bonaparte	915	General Kitchener meets Major Marchand at Fashoda, 1898	954
Reparation to Louis XIV. by the Doge of Genoa	879	Lucien Bonaparte	915	Louis Adolphe Thiers, 1797-1877	955
The Battle of Denain	880	The Battle of Marengo	916	Ferdinand de Lesseps, 1805-1894	955
Mademoiselle de Montpensier at the Bastille	881	The Coronation of the Empress Josephine	917	Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Majenta, 1808-1893	955
Louis XIV. and Molière	882	Francis Charles Augereau, Marshal of France, 1757-1816	918	Léon Gambetta, 1838-1882	955
Mozart received by the Marquise de Pompadour	883	Napoleon distributing Standards to the Army	919	Honoré de Balzac, 1799-1850	955
Louise de la Vallière presented to Louis XIV. at St. Germain	884	Napoleon visits the Manufactories	920	Victor Hugo, 1802-1885	955
The Regency Council of Louis XV.	885	Napoleon visiting the Wounded after Ulm, 1805	921	Joseph Ernest Renan, 1823-1892	955
Louis XV. 1710-1774	885	Entry of Napoleon into Berlin	922	Alexandre Dumas père, 1802-1870	955
A Tea-Party at the Princess of Condé's House	886	Napoleon, 1807	923	Germany's Note to France, July 24th, 1914	956
A Visit of Louis XV. to his Daughter The French Naval Success at Brest in 1694	887	The Battle of Friedland, 1807	924		
Louis XV. and Madame Dubarry	889	Napoleon at the Battle of Eylau	925	JAPANESE, THE :	
Louis XVI. distributing Gifts to the Poor	890	Masséna at the Battle of Wagram, 1809	926	The Earliest Inhabitants of Japan	1007
Marie Antoinette and her Children	892	A Review Day under the Empire, 1810	927	Ainus crossing over from the Islands to Japan	1009
Reunion of the States-General at Versailles, 1789	893	The Wedding Procession of Napoleon I. and Marie Louise, 1810	928	Jimmu driving Ainu Northwards	1010
A Necklace	894	The Baden Brigade retreating across the Beresina, 1812	931	Introduction of the Image of Buddha into Japan	1011
A Chest of Drawers	894	Marshal Moncy at Clichy, 1814	932	Image of Buddha thrown into the River	1012
A Commode	894	Napoleon's Farewell to his Generals at Fontainebleau, April 20th, 1814	933	Image of Buddha recovered from the River	1013
The Triumph of Marat, 1793	895	Napoleon's Departure from Elba on his Return to France, February 26th, 1815	934	A Print of a Japanese Pottery	1014
The Oath of the Tennis-court	896	Napoleon's Return to France after his Escape from Elba	935	Japanese Silk Brocade of the Nara Period	1014
Louis XVI., 1754-1793	896	The Storming of San Sebastian, 1813	936	Building a New Palace for the Emperor	1015
The Capture of the Bastille, 1789	897	After Waterloo, the 18th of June, 1815	937	The Brewing of Saké in the Seventh Century	1016
Enrolling Volunteers in 1792	898	Napoleon on board the <i>Bellerophon</i>	938	The Campaign of Yoriyoshi in Mutsu	1017
Rouget-de-Lisle singing the <i>Marseillaise</i> for the First Time	899	Marshal Soult, 1769-1851	939	A Painting by Shobun	1018
The Battle of Valmy, 1792	900	Marshal Masséna, 1756-1817	939	A Tauba, or Sword-guard	1018
The Revolutionary Mob in the Tuileries	901	Joachim Murat, 1771-1815	939	Great Controversy amongst the Fujiwara Faction	1019
The Girondists	902	Nicolas Charles Oudinot, 1767-1847	939	An Incident in the Japanese "War of the Roses"	1020
Louis XVI. and his Family in the Temple	903	Davout, Louis Nicolas, 1770-1823	939	The Dancer Shidzuka Gozen performs before Masago	1021
The Call of the Girondists	904	Michel Ney, 1769-1815	939	Yoritomo receiving the Title of Sei-i-Tai-Shogun	1022
Last Victims of the Reign of Terror Robespierre, 1758-1794	906	Louis XVIII., 1755-1824	940	The Capture of Kanukura, 1333	1023
Georges Jacques Danton	906	Louis XVIII. opening the Chambers, 1814	941	The Defeat of Kublai Khan's Fleet, 1281	1024
Girondists on their Way to the Guillotine	907	The Duke of Orleans and the Chamber of Deputies, 1830	941	The Castle of Osaka	1025
Marie Antoinette led to Execution	908	The Funeral Procession of Napoleon in the Champs-Élysées	942	Japanese Pottery	1026
Assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday, 1793	909	The Funeral of Napoleon	943	The Landing of St. Francis Xavier at Kagoshima	1027
Arrest of Charlotte Corday	910	The Capture of the Smallda of Abdel-Kader, May 16th, 1843	944	The Boy Hideyoshi hawking Faggots of Wood in the Streets	1028
Robespierre facing his Captors	911	The Capture of the Malakoff Tower	945	Hideyoshi's Army on its Way to conquer China	1029
French Staff at the Battle of Neerwinden	912	Crimean War	946	Forty Thousand Heads brought to Iyeyasu after the Battle of Sekigahara	1030
The Head of Féraud presented to Boissy D'Anglas	913	The Battle of the Hébra	946	The Dutch arrive at Hirado, 1609	1031
Installation of the Council of State, 1799	914	Napoleon III. giving Abd-el-Kader his Liberty	946	Japanese Art	1032
Napoleon Bonaparte as First Consul	915	The Battle of Magenta, 1859	947	Iyeyasu gives an Audience to Will Adams, 1600	1033
Napoleon's Mother	915	Napoleon III. at the Battle of Solferino, 1859	948		
		The Battle of Champigny	949		

Illustrations in the Text

	PAGE
JAPANESE, THE (continued)	
Kin-Tai-Kyo Bridge	1034
Y5-Mei-Mon	1034
Tomb of the Rev. J. H. Neeshima	1034
Daibutsu	1034
Stone Lanterns	1034
Will Adams builds Ships for the Shogun	1035
The Landing of Admiral Perry in Tokio Harbour, July 8th, 1853	1036
A Japanese Assault on an English Party near Yokohama, September, 1862	1037
General Count Kuroki	1038
General Count Oku	1038
General Count Nogi	1038
Field-Marshal Prince Oyama	1038
Incidents in the War between Japan and Russia	1039
The Funeral Procession of the late Emperor	1040
Japanese hawking Wares	1040
A Japanese Tea-garden	1040
A Peasant Housewife weaving	1040
JEWS, THE :	
The Wells of Nabor	521
The Moabite Stone	522
The Tabernacle	522
Abraham entering the Land of Palestine	523
The Capture of the Five Kings	524
Joshua's Covenant	525
Samuel anoints Saul (c. 1030 B.C.)	526
Saul and David	527
The Meeting of David and Abigail	529
David's Flight	530
The Death of Absalom	531
Benhadad receives News from Ahab	532
The Battle of Ramoth-Gilead, 853 B.C.	533
The Death of Jezebel, 842 B.C.	534
Athaliah hears the Proclamation of Joash, 836 B.C.	535
The Rabshakeh before the Walls of Jerusalem, 701 B.C.	536
Zedekiah is blinded and taken to Babylon, 586 B.C.	537
The Captivity of Judah	538
Nehemiah surveys the Walls of Jerusalem, 444 B.C.	539
Simon Maccabaeus, Prince and High Priest, 143-136 B.C.	540
Cleopatra visits Herod at Jerusalem, 33 B.C.	541
The Jews before Caligula	542
Sanctuary in Solomon's Temple	543
The Temple of Solomon	544
The Siege of Jerusalem, A.D. 70	547
The Arch of Titus	548
Coins illustrating Jewish History	548
The Compilation of the Talmud	549
The Synagogue of Kafr Bir'im, Galilee (Second Century A.D.)	550
The Exilarch	551
The Mosque of Omar built upon the Site of the Temple	552

	PAGE
JEWS, THE (continued)	
The Khazars adopt Judaism (Eighth Century A.D.)	553
The Flight of Maimonides, 1165 A.D.	554
Objects of Jewish Art	555
Bernard of Clairvaux defends the Jews	556
The Jews pay Homage to the Pope	557
The Ghetto	558
Isaac Abrabanel, Statesman and Commentator	559
Joseph Nassi before Selim	560
Sabbatai Zebi proclaims Himself Messiah	561
Manasseh Ben Israel pleading before Cromwell	562
Religious Ceremonies in the Eighteenth Century :	
Sounding the Ram's Horn	563
Procession of the Palms	563
Removal of Leaven	563
The Day of Atonement	563
In the Tabernacle	563
Festival of Purim	563
Sir Moses Montefiore	564
Baron Nathan Rothschild	564
Heinrich Heine	564
Benjamin Disraeli	564
Moses Mendelssohn	564
The Sanhedrin convened by Napoleon, 1807	565
The Jewish Wedding	566
Tomb of Rachael, Bethlehem	567
The Sea of Galilee	567
The Jordan	567
Mount Sinai	567
Tower of David, Jerusalem	567
Roman Remains, Samaria	567
Carrying the Law	568
PERSIANS, THE :	
The Beginnings of Fire-worship	959
Ancient Archers from a Frieze at Susa	960
Persian Art	961
Weeping for the Fall of Nineveh, 606 B.C.	962
Cyrus resolves to rebel against Astyages, the Mede	963
Sargon's Castle at Khorsabad	964
The Massacre of the Scythian Chiefs by Cyaxares the Mede	965
The Defeat of Croesus by Cyrus	966
The Postal Service in the Days of Cyrus, 546 B.C.	967
The Death of Belshazzar, 538 B.C.	968
Darius superintending his Inscription at Behistun	970
A Parthian Coffin	971
The Battle of Marathon, B.C. 490	971
Mithras slaying the Sacred Bull	972
Mordecai refusing to bow before Haman	973
Thais persuading Alexander to burn Persepolis, B.C. 330	974
Alexander in the Arachosian Mountains (Afghanistan)	975
Parthians holding up the Head of the Roman Triumvir Crassus to Ridicule, B.C. 53.	976

	PAGE
PERSIANS, THE (continued)	
The Parthian Phraates III. crowned "King of Kings" and "God" at Seleucia, B.C. 64	977
Vologeses III. superintends the Collection of the Pahlavi Avesta, 160 A.D.	978
A Portrait of Darius the Great, 521-485 B.C.	979
Ruins of Ctesiphon on the Tigris	979
Persecution of Christians under Shapur II., 310-379 A.D.	980
The Capture of the Emperor Valerian by Shapur I., 260 A.D.	981
Defeat of the White Huns by Anushirwan in 560 A.D.	982
Hall of Xerxes	983
The Great Staircase	983
Porch of Xerxes	983
Khusrû and Shirin	984
The Ethiopians defeated by Chosroes I. in 562	985
The Capture of Jerusalem by the Persian General Shahrbaraz in 614 A.D.	986
Firdusi hears his own Verses repeated to him	987
Omar Khayyam works out the Calendar, 1074 A.D.	988
The Capture of the Emperor Romanus Diogenes by Alp Arslani in 1071	989
Sa'di at the Shrine of Siva at Somnath in Media, in 1230	990
Bokhara opens its Gate to the Mongol, Ogodai Khan, 1231 A.D.	991
The Mongol, Hulagu Khan, entering Baghdad in 1256	992
The Mongol Abagha and his Byzantine Bride	993
Geoffrey de Langley with Bar Sauma before Arghun Khan, 1288	994
Tamerlane invades Persia	995
A Fight between Black and White Sheep Turks (Fifteenth Century)	996
Sir Anthony Shirley at the Court of Shah Abbas the Great in 1599	997
Minars, or Towers, of Skulls	998
Persian Armour	998
The Camp of Nadir Shah	999
Persians defeated by Russians at Aslanduz, November 1st, 1812	1000
Persian Rulers :	
Timur Lang, 1369-1405	1001
Shah Tahmasp I., the Great Sophie (Sufi, Safavi), 1524-1576	1001
Shah Abbas the Great, 1586-1628	1001
Shah Husain, 1694-1729	1001
Nadir Shah, 1736-1747	1001
Fatteh Ali Shah, 1797-1834	1001
Muhammad Ali Shah, 1906-1909	1001
Sultan Ahmad Shah, 1909	1001
The Execution of the Bab in 1850	1002
Making Persian Carpets	1003
Modern Persian Artillery (1909)	1004
Destruction in Teheran during the Revolution, 1909	1004

Illustrations in the Text

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
ROMANS, THE :		ROMANS, THE (continued)		ROMANS, THE (continued)	
Primitive Etruscan Settlement . . .	571	Hannibal crossing the Rhone . . .	628	Spartacus on Vesuvius, 73 B.C. . .	679
An Etruscan Chariot . . .	572	The Battle of Lake Trasimene, 217		A Roman Picture Gallery . . .	680
An Etruscan Warrior . . .	572	B.C.	629	Pompey in the Temple at Jerusalem . .	681
A Roman Battle with the Volscians .	573	Hannibal's Ruse to pass Fabius . .	630	Cicero denouncing Catiline . . .	682
Draining the Site of Rome . . .	574	Oriental Superstitions in Rome . .	631	Gladiators entering the Arena . . .	683
Intercession of the Sabine Women . .	575	Hannibal hears of his Brother's		The Impeachment of Verres . . .	684
The Oath of the Horatii . . .	576	Death	632	The Marriage of Pompey and Julia . .	685
Terra-cotta Etruscan Sarcophagi . .	577	Firing the Carthaginian Camp . . .	633	The Departure of Crassus for the	
Etruscan Death Ceremonies . . .	578	The Battle of Zama	634	East	686
Tullia driving over her Father's		The Triumph of Scipio Africanus . .	635	The Sacrilege of Clodius . . .	687
Corpse	579	The Election of a Vestal . . .	637	The Murder of Pompey . . .	688
The Conspiracy to restore the Tarquins	580	Flaminius declares Greeco free,		The Shrine of Venus	689
A Roman Father	581	B.C. 196	638	A Mural Painting, Pompeii . . .	690
The "Comitia Curiata"	582	Polybius with the Sons of Aenilius		The Street of Abundance, Pompeii . .	691
A Patrician and his Clients . . .	583	Paulus	639	The Amphitheatre, Pompeii . . .	691
Etruscan and Roman Bronze Objects	585	The Luperca	640	The House of the Vetii, Pompeii . .	691
Romans offering Sacrifices to the Gods	586	The Battle of Magnesia, 190 B.C. .	641	The Dressing-room of the Stabian	
A Review of Knights by the Censors .	587	Discomfiture of the Romans in Thrace	642	Baths, Pompeii	691
Coriolanus and the Roman Matrons .	588	The Scipios before the Senate . . .	643	Mural Paintings, Pompeii . . .	692
A Latin Colony	589	Roman Appreciation of Art . . .	644	Antony's Funeral Oration over the	
The Decemvirs framing the Twelve		The Youth of Cato	644	Body of Caesar	693
Tables	590	A Favourite Author	645	The Battle of Philippi, 42 B.C. . .	694
The School of Vestals	591	Late Etruscan Bronze Mirror . . .	646	The Meeting at Misenum . . .	695
The Sibylline Books	592	Etruscan Bronze Mirror	646	The Court of Antony and Cleopatra .	696
The Tragic Death of Virginia . . .	593	Trying the Strength of a Testudo . .	647	Constructing the Portus Julius . . .	697
Auspices examining Sacrifices . . .	594	The Night before Pydna	648	Phraates restoring the Roman	
The Taking of Veii	595	Scipio at the death-bed of Masinissa .	649	Standards	698
The Murder of Marcus Papirius . . .	596	Funeral Urn of about 150 B.C. . .	650	Virgil, Horace and Varius at the	
Juno's Geese save the Capitol . . .	597	Funeral Urn of Parian Marble . . .	650	House of Maecenas	699
The First Secession	598	"Delenda est Carthago"	651	Relief on Outside Wall of Ara Pacis	
Manlius paying a Soldier's Debts . .	599	The Surrender of Mancinus	652	Augustae	700
A Roman Sale	600	The Fall of Numantia, 133 B.C. . .	653	Ovid at Tomi	701
Lictors carrying Fasces	601	The Murder of Megallia	654	Closing the Temple of Janus . . .	702
Conquered Soldiers passing under the		A Market Scene at Pompeii	655	The Fastening of Dirce to the Bull .	703
Yoke	602	Statue of an Unknown Roman		The Laocoon	703
Postumius insulted by the Tarentines	603	Citizen	656	Examples of Roman Sculpture in the	
An Incorruptible Roman	604	The Death of Crassus	656	Manner of the Greeks	703
The Construction of the Via Appia . .	605	The Night before Tiberius Gracchus'		The Worship of Cybele	704
The Romans defy Pyrrhus	606	Death	657	Horace at Tibur	705
The Battle of Heraclea, B.C. 281 . .	607	Portrait busts: Marcus Tullius		Agrippina	706
A Sturdy Roman	608	Cicero, Caius Marius, Marcus An-		Antonia	706
A Roman Vintage Festival	609	tonius, Cneius Pompeius Magnus,		Thusnelda at the Triumph of Ger-	
Pyrrhus' Garrison at Tarentum . . .	610	Caius Julius Caesar	658	manicus	707
Objects of Roman Domestic Art . . .	611	Gaius Gracchus and his Mother . .	659	Sejanus saves Tiberius	708
The Aqueduct of Appius Claudius . .	612	The Surrender of Fregellae	660	The Origin of Caligula's Name . . .	711
The Relief of the Mamertines by the		Gaius Gracchus' Corn Laws	661	Caractacus before Claudius	712
Romans	613	An Attempt to colonize Carthage,		Nero's Water Festival	713
The Romans building a Fleet	614	122 B.C.	662	The Great Fire, 64 A.D.	714
The Interior of a Roman House		The Rise of Marius	663	A Gladiatorial Combat	714
(c. Third Century B.C.)	615	Jugurtha leaving Rome	664	Nero's Torches	715
Solunto, Sicily	616	Sulla and Marius	665	The Roman Amphitheatre at Nimes .	716
The Roman Victory at Mylae	617	The Cimbri in the Alps	666	Stone Relief of a Funeral Procession .	716
The Return of Regulus to Carthage .	618	The Battle of Aquae Sextiae, 102 B.C.	667	The Burial of a Christian Martyr . .	717
The Battle of Telamon	619	Equestrian Statue of Marcus Nonius		The Murder of Vitellius, 69 A.D. . .	718
A Roman Cutler's Forge	620	Balbus	668	The Eruption of Vesuvius	719
A Roman Cutler's Shop	620	Rutilius in Smyrna	669	Simon in the Triumph of Titus being	
A Roman Pork Butcher's Shop . . .	620	Saturninus and his Adherents pelted		dragged to his Death-place	720
Hamilear punishing the Insurgent		in the Senate House, 100 B.C. . .	670	The Pantheon of Agrippa	721
Mercenaries	621	Drusus carried Home Unconscious . .	671	Romans hunting the Wild Boar . . .	722
A Raid of Illyrian Pirates	622	"Darest thou kill Gaius Marius?" .	672	Romans hunting the Wild Boar . . .	722
The Festival of Flora	623	The Battle of the Colline Gate, 82 B.C.	673	The Festival of Castor and Pollux . .	723
The Foundation of Placentia	624	Sulla's Proscription	674	The Arch of Titus	724
A Dedication to Bacchus	625	Roman Ladies bathing	675	A Procession of Flora	725
The Fall of Saguntum	626	The Murder of Sertorius, 72 B.C. . .	676	An Egyptian Juggler	726
Roman Deities: Ceres, Jupiter,		A Roman Sculpture Gallery	677	Roman Emperors	727
Bacchus, Diana, Saturn, Mercury,		Gladiatorial and other Arms and		The Forum of Trajan	728
Venus	627	Armour	678	The Kindness of Trajan	729

Illustrations in the Text

	PAGE		PAGE		PAGE
ROMANS, THE (continued)		ROMANS, THE (continued)		ROMANS, THE (continued)	
The Thermae of Caracalla	731	Ambassadors of the Alamanni before Aurelian	750	The Introduction of the Silkworm	777
A Bas-relief from the Villa Albani at Rome	732	Zenobia's Last Look upon Palmyra	751	The Deposition of Phocas, 610 A.D.	778
The "Thundering Legion"	733	Persian Ambassadors before Carus	752	The Victory of Heraclius at Nineveh	779
Commodus as a Gladiator	734	Probus enters Gaul, A.D. 277	753	The Humiliation of Martina	780
When Rome was Mistress of the World	735	Diocletian burning Books of Alchemy (c. 290 A.D.)	754	The Death of Constans II.	781
The Country Villa	736	The Charioteer	755	The Oath of Justinian II.	782
Severus crossing the Alps	737	Carausius seizes the Fleet at Boulogne	756	Leo III.'s Victory over the Saracens at Constantinople, 717 A.D.	783
The Emperor Caracalla	738	Christian Martyrs in the Catacombs	757	The Coronation Bounty of Leo III.'s Empress	784
The Passing of the Vestals	739	The Martyrdom of St. Eulalia	758	The Execution of the Patriarch Constantine	785
The Aldobrandini Marriage	740	A Christian Martyr of Diocletian's Reign	759	The Triumph of Irene	786
A Corn-Ship	740	The Defeat of Maxentius at the Milvian Bridge, A.D. 312	760	The Head of Nicephorus I. brought to Khan Krüm	787
The Praetorian Rising against Ulpian	741	Constantine lying in State	761	Khan Krüm of Bulgaria	788
The Decadence of Rome	742	The Death of George of Cappadocia	762	The Choice of Theophilus	789
Roman Aqueduct	743	Ambrose refuses Theodosius Admission to Church	763	Basil I. breaking a Wild Horse	790
The Arena at Arles	743	A Bridal Casket with Reliefs	764	Defeat of the Russians by Admiral Theophanes	791
The Colosseum	743	Rome invaded by Goths	765	The Interview between Johannes I. and Sviatoslav	792
Arch at Timgad	743	Goths in Rome	766	Basil II. at the Battle near Setania	793
The Pantheon	743	Constantine tracing the Boundaries of the New Capital	769	A Norman Knight usurps the Throne of Alexius I.	794
The Temple of Vesta	743	Julian the Apostate	771	Anna Comnena dictating the "Alexiad"	795
The Roman Theatre at Orange	743	The Coronation of Marcianus	772	Manuel I. after his Defeat at Myriokephalon	796
The Maison Carrée at Nîmes	743	The Siege of Rome, 537-538 A.D.	773	Representative Byzantine Art	797
The Siege of Aquileia, 238 A.D.	744	Theodora Imperatrix	774	The Storming of Constantinople by the Venetians	798
Invasion of Goths into Thrace, A.D. 250	745	Theodora during the Night of Rebellion	775		
The Humiliation of Valerian	746	Justinian in Council	776		
The Embarkation of the Goths, A.D. 269	747				
A Bas-relief of the Third Century A.D.	748				
The Toilet of a Royal Lady	749				



By permission of Braun & Co.]

[Painted by Pierre Fritel.

THE CONQUERORS OF THE WORLD.



By permission of Messrs. Raphael Tuck & Sons

Painted by Sir E. J. Poynter, P.R.A.

THE VISIT OF THE QUEEN OF SHEBA TO KING SOLOMON.

The fame of King Solomon's magnificence and wisdom was carried to distant lands. Princes came from afar to listen to his sayings and to see the grandeur of his court. His great ivory throne, overlaid with pure gold, figured largely in Oriental tradition. Of all his visitors the Queen of Sheba (the Sabaeans, a people of South Arabia) made the deepest impression. She came in high state to test the reports of his glory, and departed confessing that of his acts and wisdom the half had not been told her.

CHAPTER X

THE JEWS. By Dr. I. ABRAHAMS

THE Jews have been so frequently in contact with other peoples during their long career, that to tell their history adequately would be to summarize the story of a large part of the world for the past four thousand years. Israel has stood apart from, yet very often in, the world ; working out a unique destiny within itself, yet influenced by and influencing external events and movements.

The Land of Palestine, rendered an object of permanent interest by its connection with Israel's



Painted by]

THE WELLS OF NAHOR.

[J. L. Gerome.

While Palestine is isolated by the desert, the sea, and mountain ranges, the great trade routes of the ancient world passed through it. The Jews were therefore at once exempt from and refreshed by foreign influences. The earliest example of their resistance to the influence of their environment is the expedition Abraham sent to Nahor to fetch one of his own kindred as a wife for his son Isaac, that he might not marry a woman of the Canaanites among whom he dwelt.

fortunes, corresponds in physical features and geographical situation with this alternate aloofness and intercourse. Palestine was cut off by mountain range and desert from neighbouring lands, yet along its coast-line and over its cross-roads went the hosts of many an army, the camels of many a caravan. It was the high-road between Asia and Africa, between Assyria and Egypt ; the sea which washed its shore, known appropriately as the Mediterranean, was the ocean-link between Europe and the East. "There is probably no older road in all the world," writes Dr. George Adam Smith, "than that which is still used by caravans from the Euphrates to the Nile, through Damascus, Galilee, Esdraelon, the Maritime Plain and Gaza." From remote antiquity Hittites and Ethiopians waged their campaigns on the same line ; Assyrians and Egyptians fought their long-drawn-out duel here. Along the Palestinian coast Alexander the Great marched on his way to Egypt, and everywhere on the route he planted



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

THE MOABITE STONE.

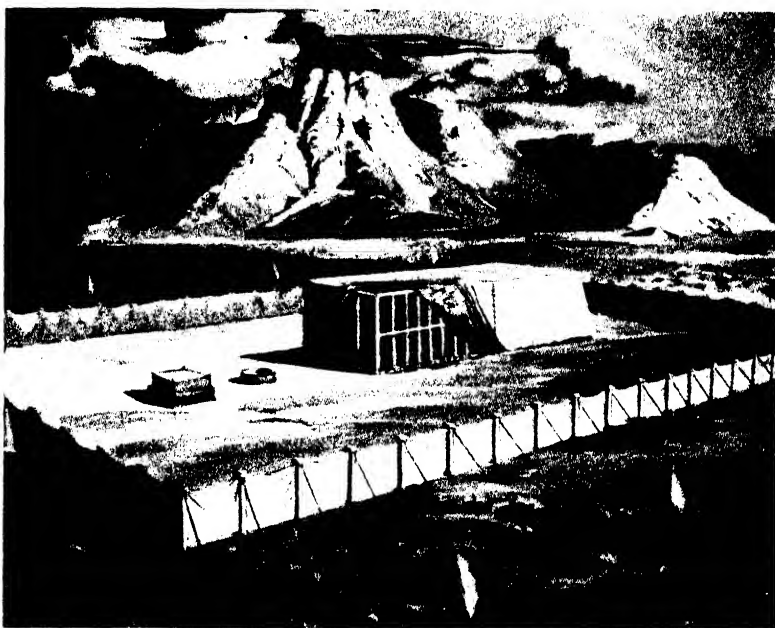
Of all the nations of the East the Jews are the poorest in historical monuments, but many events recorded in their writings can be authenticated by the inscriptions of neighbouring peoples. The triumphal inscription of Mesha, king of Moab (ninth century B.C.), witnesses to the successful rebellion of Moab in the time of Ahab.

prior to the entrance of Israel into Palestine, the country was in part under Semitic influence. On the other hand, traditions supported by recent excavation, indicate the presence also of a non-Semitic race, of taller stature, the "giants" who, according to the early Israelite explorers, dwelt in the neighbourhood of Hebron.

But Israel, if Semitic by stock, became, under the impulse of its genius and the pressure of its experiences, far from typically Semitic. Unlikeness amid likeness is the phenomenon which strikes the comparative student of Hebraic and other Semitic cultures. Very noteworthy is the fact that Israel so often exhibited an aptitude to assimilate and contribute to Aryan civilization. The first heroic figures of Jewish tradition stand far closer to the modern Western world than do many Western figures of a nearer antiquity. Herein we have

Greek colonies. Rome, too, left her mark. Long afterwards, the battle between Cross and Crescent sought its fields on the same sites, while Napoleon made Syria and Palestine "the pathway of his ambition towards that empire on the Euphrates and Indus whose fate was decided on her plains in 1799." Now, in the twentieth century, the ancient inhabitants are returning, and the coast is dotted by flourishing colonies, in which industrious groups of Jews are resuming their olden agricultural pursuits and reviving the language of the Hebrew Bible.

Much difference of opinion has existed as to the original home of the Semites, but it is now generally accepted that "it is on the assumption of an *Arabian* centre of distribution that the various phenomena of the peopling of the nearer East can be most easily explained" (R. A. S. Macalister). Semitic incursions were made into Mesopotamia and Palestine in the third millennium before the Christian era. According to this view, Babylonians and Bedawin, Hebrews and Phœnicians, Assyrians and Canaanites, were in blood, as well as in speech, one people. The test of language is, however, the one most to be relied upon. Hebrew is a branch of the great West-Asian family of languages indigenous to all the countries extending from Southern Arabia to the Armenian high-lands, and from the Eastern side of the Tigris and Euphrates to the shores of the Mediterranean. "In early times," too, "it spread from Arabia over Abyssinia, and by means of Phœnician colonies over many islands and sea-boards of the Mediterranean, as far, for instance, as to the Carthaginian coast" (Gesenius). At all events, from a period



Painted specially for this work]

THE TABERNACLE

[By Gordon Home.

During the sojourn in the wilderness the Jews received a spiritual revelation, and the Tabernacle is the name given to the portable sanctuary erected in the wilderness by Moses as a centre of worship for the tribes. Mount Sinai is shown in the background.



Painted by J. W. Schirmer.]

[By permission of the Berlin Photographic Co.

ABRAHAM ENTERING THE LAND OF PALESTINE.

The original home of the Semitic race was in all probability in Arabia, whence several migrations are known to have taken place. Many Semites were settled in Babylonia, and may have been forced to emigrate by the Kassite invasions of which we possess historical records. Their most natural course would be to seek the protection of Egypt, travelling by Haran into Palestine, as did Abraham, the father of the Jewish people, c. 2250 B.C

a strong psychological presumption in favour of the reality and historicity of the Bible characters. Personalities are less invented than are legends about them. So far, however, the records of the remote past, apart from the Scriptures, throw but faint light on the early history of Israel. There is, nevertheless, accumulating some support for those who, without attributing exact historical value to the patriarchal narratives, would remove Abraham from the realm of the mythical.

According to the tradition in Genesis xi. 31, the original home of Abraham was Ur, in Southern Babylonia; thence he migrated to Canaan, via Haran. Though no direct confirmation of the connection of Abraham with Ur has so far been found in the cuneiform records, yet "Contract-tablets, and other contemporary inscriptions, recently discovered, bear witness to the fact that in, or even before, the age of Abraham persons bearing Hebrew (or Canaanitish) names resided in Babylonia, and show that intercourse between Babylonia and the West (Canaan) was more active than was once supposed to be the case" (Driver). Much interest attaches to the identification of Amraphel, king of Shinar (Genesis xiv.), with Hammurabi, ruler and law-giver of Babylonia, while the other names (especially Chedorlaomer) in the same chapter have been read to correspond with Babylonian rulers. The date of Hammurabi is uncertain, Sayce assigning 2376-2333 B.C. to his reign, while King suggests c. 2200.

If the fourteenth chapter of Genesis be referred to Hammurabi's reign, we arrive at a possible date for Abraham and for the beginnings of the history of the Jews. The name *Jew* is a derivative from *Judah*; it means, literally, a Judæan, an inhabitant of the south of Palestine. The word came to be applied to all the adherents of Judaism, though it is only in a rough sense that we speak of Jews in the age of the patriarchs. This is not the place to consider the difficulties presented by the acceptance of the date assigned above to Abraham, when compared with the course of Scriptural story. Moreover, it is still debated whether the narrative of Chedorlaomer's campaign is fact or legend. While



Painted by]

THE CAPTURE OF THE FIVE KINGS.

[James Tissot.

The fear of invasion made the Egyptians treat the foreigners settled in Egypt with severity, and the Jews escaped into the wilderness, where Moses effected their religious reorganization. Thence in the thirteenth century B.C. they invaded Canaan under the leadership of Joshua, whose victory over the five kings of the Amorites gave the Jews a great part of the land of Canaan.

some authorities express themselves with caution, Sayce, in particular, strongly maintains that "the historical character of Chedorlaomer's campaign has been amply vindicated" by the cuneiform inscriptions. Intrinsically, as is admitted on all hands, the patriarchal narratives in Genesis convey the impression of a substratum of fact; the stories are told naturally, with a rare combination of vividness and restraint. No stories are better known, no stories less need repeating. Abraham, it has been remarked, appears under two guises: as the dignified product of Babylonian culture, and as the nomad head of a primitive civilization. The two elements are united into a consistent whole with an unrivalled art, which not only gives a strong impression of actuality, but suggests that, when the patriarchal narratives were reduced to their present shape, there had long been moving within the Hebrew spirit that unique element which was neither Babylonian nor Bedawi.

Assuming that Abraham synchronizes with Hammurabi and Moses with Rameses II., something like a thousand years must separate the founder of the Hebrew people from the hero of their rescue from Egypt. The Biblical chronology, on the other hand, implies an interval some centuries less than this. The help for the intermediate period from the Tell el-Amarna Letters is equally tantalizing. These Letters, belonging to the period c. 1400 B.C. (Petrie's date is between 1385-1365), indicate that Palestine was then an Egyptian province, governed by Egyptian officers; while according to the traditional chronology, the Exodus and freedom from Egyptian control occurred c. 1490 B.C. Again, the stele of Merenptah, c. 1220 B.C., found by Petrie, records that "Israel is desolated." This, according to some, may simply be the Egyptian "version" of the Exodus; others see in it evidence that Israel, or a part of the people, was already settled in Syria before the Exodus, and had been engaged in warfare against Merenptah.

It is obvious that scholars are, in the present state of fragmentary information, at the mercy of any day's discoveries, and caution both in rejecting traditional statements and in proclaiming their confirmation is the only just attitude. At any hour inscriptions may come to light giving more definite facts and dates, and thus provide the missing clues to several still unsolved riddles concerning the relations of Israel and Egypt in the second millennium B.C., including the exact nature of the position associated with



Painted by]

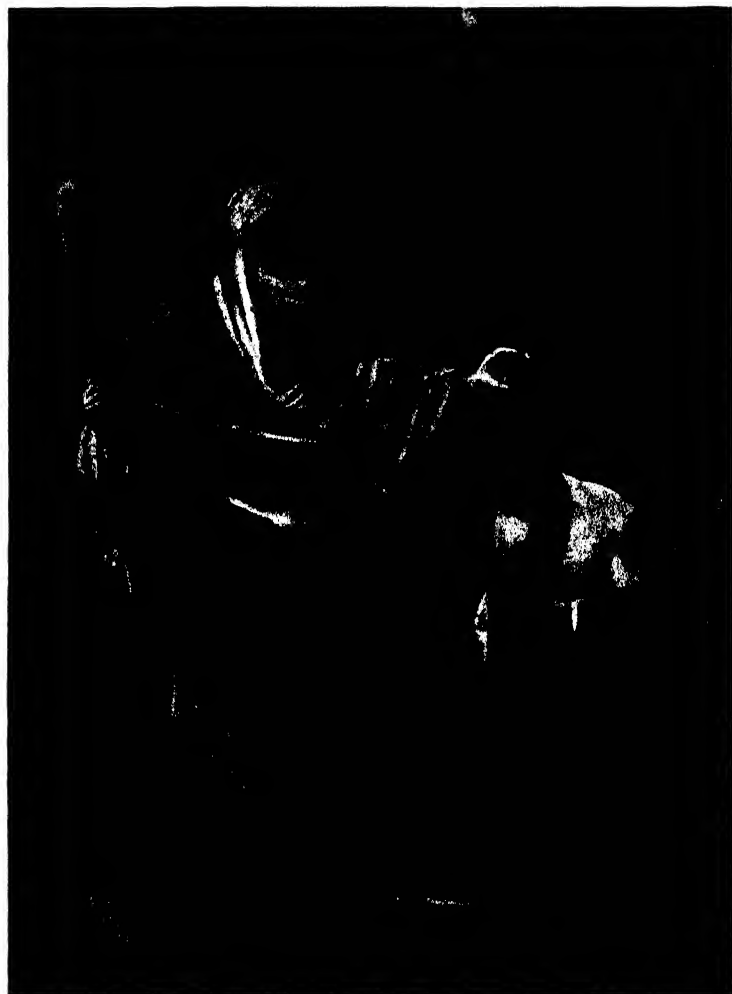
[A. Kampf.

JOSHUA'S COVENANT.

Joshua laid the foundation of the Jewish settlement in Palestine, but the most fertile portions of the land and many cities remained in the possession of the Canaanites. His last action was to make the people swear not to forget their religion, which alone could prevent them from being absorbed by their neighbours. Under their succeeding leaders, local heroes called Judges, only one formidable combination of Canaanites—that headed by Sisera—attacked them.

the romantic rôle of Joseph in the Biblical account of the Pharaohs. The main facts that stand out in the traditions on these subjects are the Exodus and the Covenant; Israel's attainment to nationality under memorable circumstances, and some sort of organization of the religion which, after a syncretism of many elements, was to affect the world so profoundly.

Joshua partially carried out the settlement of Canaan, but the settlement was followed by the era of unrest known as the Age of the Judges, which extended over a period of two centuries between Joshua and Saul. The Judges were local heroes, like Deborah, Gideon, Samson, who led their clans



Painted by]

[J. J. Benjamin Constant.

SAMUEL ANOINTS SAUL (c. 1030 B.C.).

The failure of the various tribes of Israel to defend themselves continually against their enemies necessitated a unification of the people under a king. Saul, anointed by Samuel, maintained a force of three thousand men, and, with his son Jonathan, resisted the attacks of the Philistines.

end came dramatically. As with Sisera, so with Abimelech, a woman was the instrument of fate. Having captured the outworks of Thebez, Abimelech attacked the inner tower. In the act of setting fire to the door, he was struck down by an upper millstone cast by "a certain woman." With Jephthah, too, and his conquest of the Ammonites, we have the same association of the deeds of women with the prowess of men. In the case of Jephthah, however, the interest is pathetic rather than martial, and his daughter, bewailed upon the mountains in her lifetime, has never ceased to supply materials for poets and artists. The story of Samson, again, provides snatches of song as well as marvellous exploits. Riddles have always been favourite pastimes of the East, and Samson's Riddles and

to occasional victory against neighbouring foes—Moabites, Canaanites and Midianites—and prepared the way for the monarchy. Samson, the Hebrew Hercules, round whose name many myths clustered, was the typical, life-long enemy of the Philistines, a non-Semitic people, who spoke a Semitic speech and became Semitized. Deborah's fame is due not merely to the martial spirit displayed in her support of Barak, but also to the magnificent Ode in which she celebrated the overthrow of Sisera at the river Kishon. The Book of Judges supplies other instances of the association in ancient history between events and the literary expression given to them in pæan, elegy, and folk-lore. Thus, after Gideon had delivered Israel from the Midianites, nomad invaders who had crossed over from the desert, his son and successor Abimelech assumed at Shechem the royal state which Gideon himself had declined. Jotham, the only one of Abimelech's brothers to escape the savagery of the self-appointed monarch, thereupon spoke his famous parable of the trees who went forth to anoint a king and ended in having to content themselves with the bramble. Jotham failed to depose Abimelech immediately, for the latter maintained himself as prince for three years. But Jotham's contemptuous satire had its effects, and much disaffection was aroused. The

Painted by

SAUL AND DAVID.

Though Saul was more successful than Abimelech in founding a kingdom in Israel, his jealous temper and temporary derangements of mind unfitted him for the kingship. David, the most successful of his warriors, often soothed the king's melancholy by his harp-playing, but was eventually driven into exile. Saul, who had given David his daughter Michal in marriage, feared his armour-bearer's popularity, and suspected him of conspiring to make his son Jonathan king.

[Ernest Normand.]



THE KINGDOMS OF JUDAH AND ISRAEL.

verses are thus natural to the man and the age. With him, too, much of the interest turns on the part played by a woman. The Book of Judges, indeed, presents a wonderful gallery of contrasted female portraits in Deborah, Jael, Jephthah's daughter, and Delilah—who became the type of the betrayer, delivering over as she did the strong man bound into the hands of the Philistines.

The Philistines curiously enough gave their name to the whole land, for Palestine is synonymous with Philistia. This people came to Palestine, probably from Crete, in the reign of Rameses III., and, according to Macalister, introduced something of the Cretan culture. Upsetting current conceptions, this same authority presents the Philistines as the artists of the Palestinian shore. The contest between Philistia and Israel was, in a sense, the beginning of the struggle between Hellenism and Hebraism which has gone on through the ages, a struggle

which has often produced a syncretism of the utmost value to civilization. The early struggle came to a head during the activities of Samuel, followed by the elevation of Saul to the kingship in the eleventh century B.C.

The immediate predecessor of Samuel was Eli, who, as priest and judge, made Shiloh the centre of activity. Eli lived in a most troubled period. The Philistines no longer contented themselves with their settlements in the south-west; they overran the centre, and for a time after the death of Samson, Palestine probably deserved to be called Philistia. The misfortune due to external foes was, in Eli's case, increased by domestic unhappiness. Well did Eli realize the justice of the calamity prophesied against his house by the infant Samuel. The Ark of the Covenant was carried into the camp, but victory over the Philistines was not to be won by such means. The army of Israel was overthrown at Ebenezer, Eli's sons Hophni and Phineas were slain, and the aged priest, awaiting the news, sat trembling on his seat by the wayside. Eli was ninety-eight, and heard with dismay of Israel's defeat and his sons' death; then came the final touch, the loss of the Ark. At the news of this catastrophe, he sank back and fell dead, after judging Israel for forty years. His successor Samuel was a more vigorous character, a fine foil to Saul; together they laid the foundation of Israel's independence and of Israel's organized religion. Yet there were defeats as well as victories against Philistia; there were backward as well as forward steps in the religious development. In the narrative of Samuel we find primitive notions, such as the admission of the images known as Teraphim, the story of the Witch of Endor, and at the same time such noble prophetic utterances as that "obedience is better than sacrifice."

Similarly, David's character is drawn from two different points of view. We see him as the dour warrior and as the divine minstrel. The two aspects are not inconsistent ; his elegy over Saul and Jonathan combines the two sides. As G. Adam Smith asserts : " There is no reason either in the language or the substance of the Dirge to doubt the ascription to David." That being so, David appears in a strongly magnanimous light. This fact must be set against his truculent death-bed directions. There must have been a charm about David, if we are to explain psychologically the idealization of him which led to his traditional association with so many Psalms. The " man after God's own heart " must have possessed some of the great qualities which the Biblical redactors assigned to him. Many of the Psalms were not written by David ; but there must be truth in the ascription of a special lyric gift to him.

After his death comes the magnificent reign of Solomon and the construction of the Temple. David, after a seven years' stay in Hebron, had moved the capital to Jerusalem and conveyed the Ark thither. His victories over surrounding peoples—little disturbed by such untoward incidents as the rebellion of his son Absalom—had raised Israel to great prominence, and Solomon felt himself able to complete David's work by building the Temple which his father had planned. It was built on the eastern hill of Jerusalem, occupying the site of the Rock of Moriah, traditionally identified with the scene of Abraham's presentation of Isaac as a willing offering, though the sacrifice was not allowed to reach consummation. The style of the architecture adopted for the Temple is variously interpreted. Some see a strong resemblance to Egyptian structures ; others detect similarity to Syro-Phœnician models. More important than the structure itself was the use made of it. Whatever Solomon's intentions were, it ended by becoming, after the reforms of Josiah, the central shrine for Israel. Nor was it merely an



Painted by]

THE MEETING OF DAVID AND ABIGAIL

[I. Repin.

After being driven into hiding by the jealousy of Saul, David maintained an armed force and protected the Israelites against robbers. One of his neighbours, Nabal, a rich herdsman, refused to recognize this assistance, and David prepared to attack him, but was deterred from his purpose by Nabal's wife, Abigail, who came to meet him with rich presents.

object or place of cult. The sacrificial ritual played a large part there ; but it, or rather the Temple which was afterwards erected on the same site, formed a place of prayer, as well as of worship in the narrower sense.

Just as David became the type of the Psalmist, so Solomon was the type of the Philosopher. To him were attributed some of the Wisdom Books, and his reign was distinguished by the monarch's personal attributes, no less than by the extent of his conquests and the splendour of his empire.



Painted by]

DAVID'S FLIGHT.

[A. Rochegrosse.

When Absalom returned after being pardoned for the murder of Amnon, David refused to see him, though he was his natural successor. Thereupon Absalom induced the tribe of Judah to revolt, and David was compelled to make a hasty retreat across the Jordan. Enabled by Absalom's delay to raise an army, David gave strict orders that Absalom was not to be injured, but his commander, Joab, ruthlessly murdered him.

But despite the fine qualities that the Queen of Sheba recognized in Solomon's rule, domestic discontent, as well as other causes, led to disruption. Jeroboam, son of Nebat, was an Ephraimite, and thus a scion of the house of Joseph. As a young man he had rendered conspicuous services to Solomon, and rose to a high position. But he used his elevation as a means to stir up trouble ; his plot was discovered and he was forced to flee to Egypt. On Solomon's death he returned home, and thereupon there came to a head the rivalry between the two greatest of the tribes, Judah and Joseph. In consequence of Jeroboam's ambition, aided by the weakness of Solomon's successor Rehoboam, at about the year 937 B.C. there were formed the rival, and often hostile, kingdoms of Judah and Israel, the latter of which lost its identity by the capture of Samaria in 722 B.C., while the Southern Kingdom of Judah maintained its independence till 586 B.C. This, however, was not the end. After half a century of captivity in Babylonia, the exiles returned, and Judæa and the Temple again rose on the ruins of the past.

The story of Israel's growth during this long period is told in the Biblical histories, under the guise

of a recurrence of alternate periods of degeneration and revival, of apostasy and religious amendment. It is to criticism that we owe the new theory of continuous progress, a progress not without intermission, but steadily advancing towards a definite end. That end was the perfection of the belief in Ethical Monotheism, and the application to national life of the principles of righteousness. To this end lawgiver, prophet, poet, priest and sage contributed. The great eighth century prophets, according to the theory which is most widely accepted, preceded the Law as now formulated in the Pentateuch. But though the latter is, in its final form, much later than the age of Moses, yet it is not unreasonable to assume a basis in fact for the traditions which assign to Moses a special rôle as a legislator. The truth seems



Painted by]

[G. Rochegrosse.

THE DEATH OF ABSALOM

After the death of Absalom David's reign was undisturbed by domestic troubles until the dispute between Solomon and Adonijah for the succession. David made the Jews the predominant nation between the Euphrates and the Nile, and, by fixing his capital at the Jebusite city of Jerusalem, and removing the Ark there, avoided giving offence to any of the tribes. His is the most luminous and gifted personality in Jewish history, surpassed only in ethical greatness and general historical importance by Moses.



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

BENHADAD RECEIVES NEWS FROM AHAB.

Omri and Ahab had recognized to some extent the overlordship of Syria, but the latter freed himself from the tyranny of Benhadad by his victories at Samaria and Aphek. But Ahab wisely contented himself with demanding the restoration of the cities taken from Israel, and allied himself with Syria against Shalmaneser II., whose forces they defeated at Karkar on the Orontes in 854 B.C.

formative. Fruition was to come long after the monarchy had passed, and the things most lasting in it were not the deeds of kings—interesting enough in themselves, as when figures like Ahab and Jezebel and Jehu or Hezekiah pass across the stage—but the efforts of the moral and religious reformers who, like Elijah and many another, faced kings with the courage of a noble conviction. In the same royal period Israel and Judah were often at war; but sometimes we find them in alliance, as happened with Ahab and Jehoshaphat in the early part of the ninth century B.C. against Damascus. Omri had transferred the capital of Israel to Samaria, “Ephraim’s proud diadem on the summit of a fertile valley.” The strategic strength of Samaria was shown by the long siege it was able to endure against the Syrians in the ninth century B.C. and against the hosts of Sargon in 722 B.C. But though, under Omri, Samaria attained to great prominence as a fortress, the Kingdom of Israel was forced to admit the overlordship of Syria, which had ceased to trouble Israel since David’s victories had reduced it to quiescence. Omri’s reign was, on the whole, however, glorious in the military sense; and it was not till his son Ahab’s reign that foreign forces, both in politics and religion, dominated the northern kingdom. In order to meet the antagonism of Syria,

to be that the two tendencies, the prophetic and the legal, were from an early period in Israel’s history working together. The function of the prophet is to evolve and to present with passionate emphasis the great eternal principles of truth in religion and morals. The priest or lawgiver has an equally significant mission. He must apply the prophetic principles to the popular life. The prophet is the absolutist, the priest the pragmatist. The two elements are not contrasts, but supplements. The Pentateuch is post-exilic in its extant shape, but there must have been law as well as prophecy in the pre-exilic period. There was law before the prophets as well as after them; the Pentateuch itself combined the two elements, the prophetic (*e.g.*, in Deuteronomy) and the priestly (*e.g.*, in Leviticus). The prophet must often be a critic of the conventional religion and institutions, an opponent of ritual, but, on the other hand, he may often be the inspirer of conventions and institutions and ritual codes.

The full effects of this attempt to express great fundamental principles in the daily life of a community were not felt till much later. The epoch of the monarchy, with all its glories on the one hand, and its humiliations on the other, was

Ahab allied himself with Phœnicia, and his marriage with the Tyrian princess Jezebel involved the recognition of the Tyrian Baal. Ahab, again, was the first Jewish king to come into hostile relations with Assyria. In 854 B.C. he joined the confederacy against Shalmaneser II., and though for a long time Assyria made no serious attacks on Palestine, in the end the latter country came within the scope of Assyrian control.

Under the stress of these external events, the eighth century prophets, Amos, Hosea, Isaiah, Micah, uttered their call for righteousness as the only genuine safeguard against disaster from without. Northern Israel turned a deaf ear, but in southern Judah the moral was partly taken to heart; for following the overthrow of Israel, we have Assyria master of Palestine, and yet within we meet the great Judæan reformation of Josiah, which culminated, under the influence of Jeremiah, about a century after Israel's deportation. No incident in the history of Judah is more momentous than this. There had been splendid upholders of the best Hebraic ideals on the throne of Judah before Josiah. Hezekiah, who reigned in Jerusalem at the very time when Samaria was taken, had done his best to uproot idolatry. The historian tells us how this spiritual revival was matched by success against invaders, such as Sennacherib, who returned discomfited to Assyria after the destruction of his army. But Hezekiah stood between Ahaz and Menasseh, and Hezekiah's father and son were both of them lukewarm in their religious devotion, though it must be confessed that their hands were full with foreign troubles. Under Josiah, grandson of Menasseh, however, there came a great change which permanently influenced not only Judah, but the religious history of the world. What Hezekiah had attempted at the instigation of Isaiah, Josiah accomplished under Jeremiah's guidance. But this great reform of worship did not produce equal fortune politically. Josiah fell in battle at Megiddo, when the hosts of Necho, king of Egypt, overthrew Judah (608 B.C.). Josiah's successors in vain sought to win safety against Assyria by alliance with Egypt. But Judah, too, was destined to fall. Patriotic, yet assured that safety lay in submission to Assyria; compelled to announce the impending doom of the Holy City, Jeremiah was able to soar far beyond the horizon within which stood capital and Temple, able to give to the future a polity based on the spiritual individuality of each human soul. The new covenant was to be written,



Painted by]

[V. de Brozdek.

THE BATTLE OF RAMOTH-GILEAD. 853 B.C.

Benhadad, in spite of Ahab's generous conduct, refused to cede the fortress of Ramoth after the danger of an Assyrian invasion was past, and the kings of Israel and Judah prepared to take it by force. The captains of Syria were ordered to "fight neither with small nor great, save only with the king of Israel," and on Ahab's death the allied forces fled in confusion.

not on tables of stone, but in every man's heart. Nebuchadnezzar conquered Judah and destroyed Jerusalem in 586 B.C. But the fall was a prelude to a splendid uprising.

Under Nebuchadnezzar and his successors the deported Judæans passed half a century. Many must have been left in their old country, to begin there the revival, and to welcome to their side those who came home when Cyrus granted his license for the Return in 538 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar reigned for upwards of forty years (604-561 B.C.). He was not essentially a man of war, but he delighted in the architectural adornment of his capital more than in military campaigns against distant foes. Thus,



Painted by

[V. de Brozick.]

THE DEATH OF JEZEBEL, 842 B.C.

Omri, who by fixing his capital at Samaria became the real founder of the kingdom of Israel, allied himself with Tyre by marrying his son Ahab to Jezebel, the daughter of Ethbaal, as a protection against the growing power of Syria. After Jehu had slain Ahab's son and successor, Ahaziah, and his nephew, Jehoram, king of Judah, he rode to Jezreel, and Jezebel, who greeted the usurper scornfully, was murdered by his commands.

nucleus of a restored Israel, which, without producing the ideal results visioned forth by Isaiah, nevertheless gave solidity to the institutions of the past, intensified pietistic devotion to the Law, but also provided an impetus for progressive spiritual development.

Under a Pehah, or Governor, Judæa formed part of a Persian province, enjoying social and religious autonomy, subject to the payment of taxes and the avoidance of political disturbance. The Temple of Jerusalem was restored in part under Darius (522-485 B.C.), the building being consecrated in 516, and once more were heard the tones of the harp which had been hung up on the willows of Babylon. Later on came a second return of the exiles, when a new era in the Judæan reorganization occurred under

for a large part of the Jews' sojourn, Babylonia was in the hands of a ruler under whom they might develop their spiritual life. This, to judge by results, they seem to have done. Israel owed much to Babylonia and to other civilizations, and the development of Judaism throughout may be paralleled in the history of other Semitic religions. But the same causes did not lead to the same effects. Even when thrown into the very centre of Babylonian culture in the sixth century, the Jews neither suffered disintegration nor underwent coalescence, but became more fixed than ever in their communal and religious identity. Much of this resilience was due to Ezekiel— who pictured forth a restored Temple with an ideal ritual— and to the Second Isaiah— who dreamed nobly of the world-spread of the humanitarian Monotheism of the Jews, so that all men should see the Light borne by Israel, the Servant of the Lord. Babylonia itself fell. In 538 B.C. Cyrus captured the capital, and between that date and 333 B.C. there intervene two centuries of Persian domination over Palestine, ended by the conquests of Alexander. In the very year of the capture of Babylon, the Return of the Jews was permitted by Cyrus. Zerubbabel, who led the exiles home, was the representative of the Judæan royal house and the centre of many Messianic hopes. Under him was formed the



Painted by]

[V. de Brouck.

ATHALIAH HEARS THE PROCLAMATION OF JOASH, 836 B.C.

After the wholesale murders of Jehu, the massacre of the seventy princes of Israel and the forty-two princes of the house of David, Athaliah, the daughter of Ahab and wife of Jehoram, put the whole royal family of Judah to death. But her grandson Joash escaped, and was concealed by Jehoiada and Jehosheba, his wife. Six years later Joash was proclaimed king in the temple, and Athaliah, hurrying in to learn the reason of the rejoicing, was taken prisoner and executed.



Painted by

[Jose Villegas.]

THE RABSHAKEH BEFORE THE WALLS OF JERUSALEM. 701 B.C.

After the Assyrian invasion in 722 B.C., when Samaria was destroyed, Judah paid tribute to Sargon, but Hezekiah, in spite of Isaiah's warnings, rebelled on the accession of Sennacherib. The Assyrians laid Judah waste, and demanded by the Rabshakeh the surrender of Jerusalem, but were forced to retreat by reason of plague or disturbances at home before the city was taken.

the guidance of Nehemiah and Ezra. The city walls of Jerusalem were rebuilt in 444 B.C. This act roused the opposition of the Samaritans. The hostility of the latter was political, for the fortification of Jerusalem would seem to the Samaritans ominous of a renewal of the old conflict between Samaria and Judæa. We know little of what occurred politically within Judæa during the Persian period. The Elephantine papyri, however, show a close connection between the home Jews and the Egyptian settlement at about the year 400 B.C. Under Artaxerxes Ochus (359-339 B.C.) there is record of trouble between Judæa and its Persian overlord; a revolt and reprisals are reported (c. 350 B.C.). Many Jews were transported as captives into Hyrcania, on the Caspian, and Babylonia; and, according to some authorities, these events account for some of the latest additions to the prophetic books, and gave rise to the composition of certain of the Psalms.

With Alexander the Great the East fell under the thrall of Hellenism. So far, Hebrew and Greek had hardly come into contact. As it has been admirably said, it is stimulating to the historical imagination to remember that "Solon was a contemporary of Jeremiah, Peisistratus of the Second Isaiah and Pericles of Nehemiah" (Montefiore). But Hellenism and Hebraism had come into no direct relations until the Battle of Issus in 333 B.C., which won Asia for Alexander, and made him master of Palestine. He was a conciliatory conqueror. His treatment of Judæa is summed up in the statement of the historian Josephus that many Jews took military service under Alexander, "on condition that they should continue in the laws of their forefathers." The foundation of Alexandria in Egypt was destined to prove momentous for the Jews. In Alexandria the Jews enjoyed many rights, and during the next centuries the city of the Delta formed the focus whence spread a propaganda of Judaism to the Greek world, and a development of Hellenic Judaism which culminated in Philo. Under the Ptolemies, the Pentateuch was translated into Greek, and with intervals of persecution, the Alexandrian Jews basked in the sunshine of

culture and emancipation. But the constant wars between the Seleucids, whose capital was at Antioch in Syria, and the Ptolemies, who were settled in Egypt, caused much disturbance in the home affairs of Judæa. With Antiochus III. Judæa passed under Seleucid hegemony. The Ptolemies were destitute of fanaticism; they were latitudinarians with regard to national cults; but the Seleucids were less tolerant and more in earnest to enforce Hellenism on alien systems. The process of Hellenization under their hands was an obsession and a tyranny. When Antiochus IV. ascended the Syrian throne in 175 B.C. the clouds began to gather. Antiochus was a genuine Hellenist, but he aspired to play the part of Alexander without his warlike genius or statesmanship.

The Maccabæan revolt that followed (168 B.C.) occurred at the moment of crisis for the ancient-world. Rome was becoming lord of the East. She had humbled Carthage and Syria; Macedon and Alexandria lay in the hollow of her hand. She had entered into the heritage of Alexander. There were two, and only two, barriers to the complete overthrow of Oriental culture. On the one hand, Judæa took the lead against the inroad of Western paganism, and on the other, Parthia resisted the complete annihilation of the East as a political force. Mommsen has well shown that at the very moment of the Roman triumph there was a powerful reaction, both in Parthia and Judæa, of native religion and polity against the corrupt Hellenism represented by Syria. When Antiochus roused both these peoples against himself, he was in effect rousing them against Rome. Just when Rome had assumed the place of Alexander, the East reasserted itself. With Mithridates the East re-entered the political arena of the civilized world; with Judas Maccabæus it re-entered the religious.

After three years of struggle, during which Judas won success after success, the Temple of Jerusalem



Painted by

ZEDEKIAH IS BLINDED AND TAKEN TO BABYLON. 586 B.C.

[José Villegas.]

In 597 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Babylon, took Jerusalem and put Zedekiah on the throne. Zedekiah, however, allied himself with Haa-ab-ra, king of Egypt, and rebelled. In 586 Nebuchadnezzar again took Jerusalem, and had Zedekiah, the last descendant of David to rule in Jerusalem, blinded and taken to Babylon, where he died in prison.

was re-dedicated (165 B.C.). During this period we witness the birth of Apocalypse, for the Book of Daniel belongs to this age. It was distinguished, too, by martyrdoms endured for the ideal, martyrdoms which became the exemplar of many future devotions. The phase of passive resistance passed with the accession to leadership of Judas Maccabæus (probably the latter epithet is derived from a Hebrew word signifying "hammer"). Such stories as that of Judith belong to the period of active revolt. Judith was the heroine of the vigorous campaign of which Judah (Judas) was the hero. At the risk of death or dishonour, she visited the camp of Holofernes and emerged triumphant. Judas is, however, a genuine historical personage. With the help of all his brethren, we read in a lyric outburst enshrined in the



Painted by Bendemann.

[By permission of the Berlin Photographic Co.]

THE CAPTIVITY OF JUDAH.

On the taking of Jerusalem in 586 B.C. Nebuchadnezzar sacked and burned the city, and led the people who had survived famine and the sword captive to Babylon. Gedaliah, a Babylonian prefect was set to rule over Judah.

First Book of the Maccabees, he fought with gladness the battle of Israel. "And he gat his people great glory, and put on a breastplate as a giant, and girt his warlike harness about him, and set battles in array. He was like a lion in his deeds and as a lion's whelp roaring for prey." Wonderfully did "salvation prosper in his hand," so that "his memorial is blessed for ever." He won his victories in the rugged defiles of Bethheron; again at Emmaus, where the hills of Judæa meet the rolling uplands of the Shephelah; and, thirdly, at Bethzur, where the Hebron road turns northwards to Jerusalem. Syria was not able to put forth all her strength, and Judas profited by the troubles that menaced Antioch from other sides. But it is doubtful whether Antiochus IV. could, under any circumstances, have overcome the Judæan resistance. He was not made of the stuff from which are woven steady upholders of a cause.



Painted specifically for this work

NEHEMIAH SURVEYS THE WALLS OF JERUSALEM, 444 B.C.

[By H. M. Burton.]

The captivity, during which Israel became, under the teaching of the Second Isaiah, a religious congregation, was ended by the conquest of Babylon by Cyrus, who allowed the Jews to return home. Artaxerxes sent Ezra to Jerusalem, and afterwards appointed Nehemiah as Persian governor of Judaea. Nehemiah made a survey by night of the ruined walls, and reorganized the labour of rebuilding the city. His success established and consolidated the Jewish community.



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

SIMON MACCABAEUS, PRINCE AND HIGH PRIEST, 143-135 B.C.

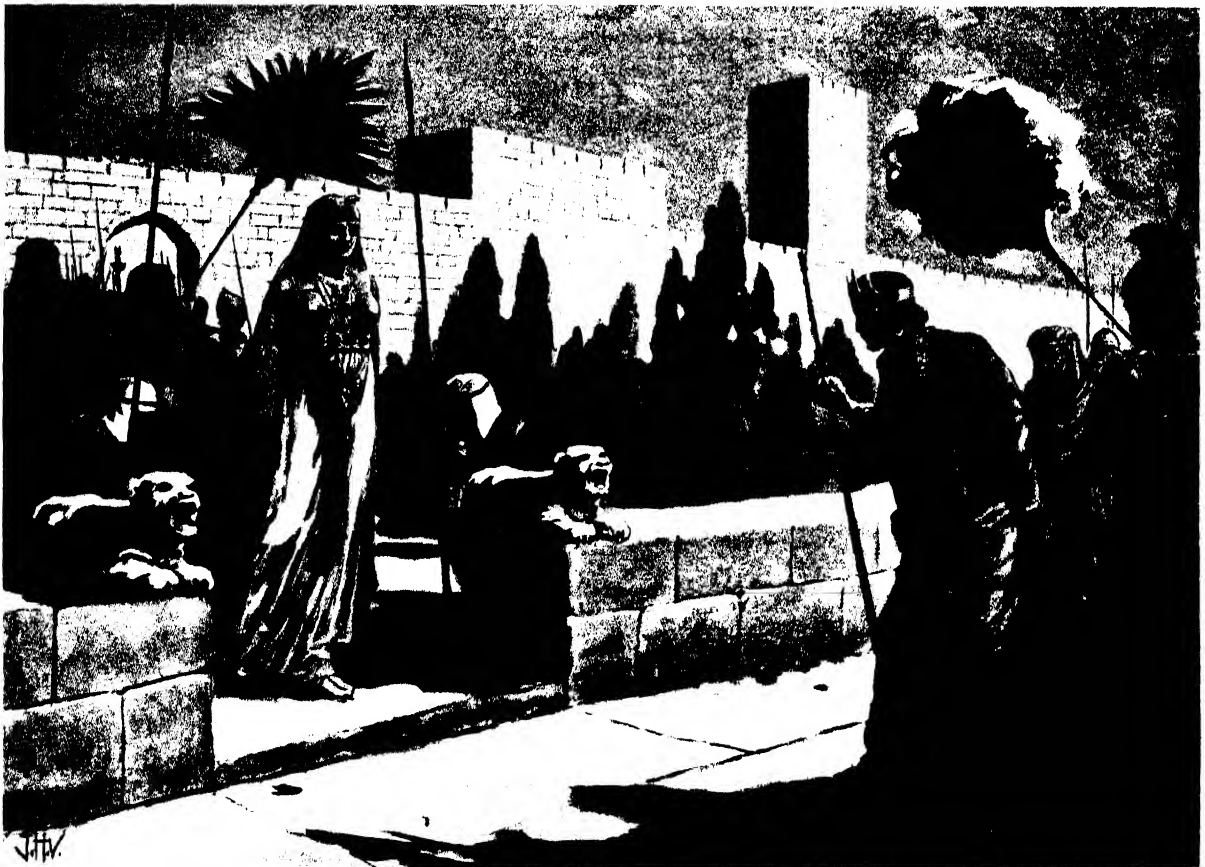
The persecutions of Antiochus Epiphanes caused the rebellion of the Jews. Under Mattathias, Judas, Jonathan and Simon Maccabaeus, the Syrian overlordship was defied and extinguished. In 141 B.C. Simon Maccabaeus was confirmed as permanent Prince and High Priest, and the office made hereditary in his family.

Against the firm enthusiasm of Judas he could never have prevailed. At all events, whether on his deathbed or earlier, Antiochus abandoned his Hellenizing projects, and after his demise Lysias, the Syrian general and regent, made covenant with the Jews, that "they should walk in their own laws as aforetime." This signal success took the basis away from the revolt. The nation was no longer united behind Judas. Religious liberty being attained, many were completely satisfied. The Hasmonean family, of which Judas was a scion, were not, however, content. They were determined to win political as well as religious autonomy. Deserted by many of his former adherents, Judas fell in battle, in 161, on the fatal field of Ilasa. His aims were thus imperfectly realized in his own lifetime. But he had prepared the way. Twenty years later his brother Simon cleared the country of its foreign garrisons, and was recognized both as Prince and High Priest. Then, as a rapid sequel, in 139-8 B.C. Simon obtained that privilege without which in ancient times no state was regarded as autonomous, viz., the right to coin his own money in shekels and half-shekels, silver coins of fourteen and seven grammes respectively in weight. The age of Simon was, from every point of view, a time of ideal happiness for Judæa.

The last of the heroic Maccabæan brothers died in 135 B.C. It was in the reign of his son and successor, John Hyrcanus (135-105 B.C.), that we first hear of the parties of Pharisees and Sadducees, the former the bearers of the popular Judaism, the latter an aristocracy both socially and religiously. The Sadducean party tended to include the higher-placed elements in Judæan society, and its members were wedded to the letter of Scripture. The Pharisees were not a sect; they were the people. The effects of the Maccabæan struggle were partly seen in a narrowing of the Jewish horizon. The struggle against Hellenism tempted some to adopt a separatist Hebraism. But while the Pharisees developed Judaism

legalistically and ritually, they also were progressives in that they sought to adapt the spirit and the content of religion to life. The Pharisaic legalism sometimes inclined to externalism, and evoked attacks such as we read in the Gospels. But there was no lack of spirituality in genuine Pharisaism, as was patently manifested in the life and teaching of such representative Pharisees as Hillel. Despite the outbreak of conflict between Pharisees and Sadducees, Hyrcanus' reign was glorious, for, in the words of Schuerer, this king, by new conquests, built up a Jewish state such as had not been seen from the time of the overthrow of the Ten Tribes, perhaps not even since the partition of the kingdom after the death of Solomon.

Another section of the Jews of this, or perhaps of a slightly later, period were the Essenes. They were more rigorous pietists than the Pharisees, and lived a life approaching asceticism. They attract modern interest because of the parallel that may be drawn between them and the early Christian communities on the one hand, and monastic orders on the other. Josephus gives us a pleasing account of the Essenes. "They reject pleasures as vice, and esteem continence and the conquest over passions to be virtue." They were "despisers of riches," being "wonderfully communistic; nor is there found among them any who possesses more than another." On joining the order, each man placed all his property in the common stock, to form "one patrimony for all the brethren." They had few settled homes, but moved from place to place, living in the utmost simplicity, never rising from the meal in a condition of satiety. They passed much of their time in devotions; they avoided oaths, for "their bare word is firmer than an oath," seeing that "what cannot be believed without swearing by God is already



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

CLEOPATRA VISITS HEROD AT JERUSALEM, 33 B.C.

The civil wars between the descendants of the Maccabees enabled the Jewish general Antipater, governor of Idumea, to become Procurator by the favour of Caesar. His son, Herod, by courting the interests of Rome, reigned in peace, but was hated by the Jews for his foreign friendships and the cruelty of his administration. Antony gave a large part of his dominion to Cleopatra, who visited the Jewish king at Jerusalem in 33 B.C. The Queen hoped to embroil Herod with Antony and gain a further portion of Judaea, but Herod was not to be deceived.

condemned." Every Essene, on initiation, was obliged to undertake to "observe justice towards men" and "to do no harm to any one," but "to ever show fidelity to all." Josephus adds much more as to the doctrines and manners of the sect. The Sadducees mainly differed from both Pharisees and Essenes in their denial of the immortality of the soul, a tenet held alike by all the non-Sadducean Jews. The Pharisees differed from the Essenes chiefly in disputing the value of extreme asceticism. On the other hand, the moral basis of Essenism was identical with that of Pharisaism. Both assigned a high place to the duty of neighbourly love. It was Hillel the Pharisee who, on being asked to summarize Judaism in a sentence, did so by formulating the Golden Rule in negative terms: "What thou hatest if done to thee, do thou to no man."

To return, however, to the conditions prevalent under the Hasmonean line. Notable as were the



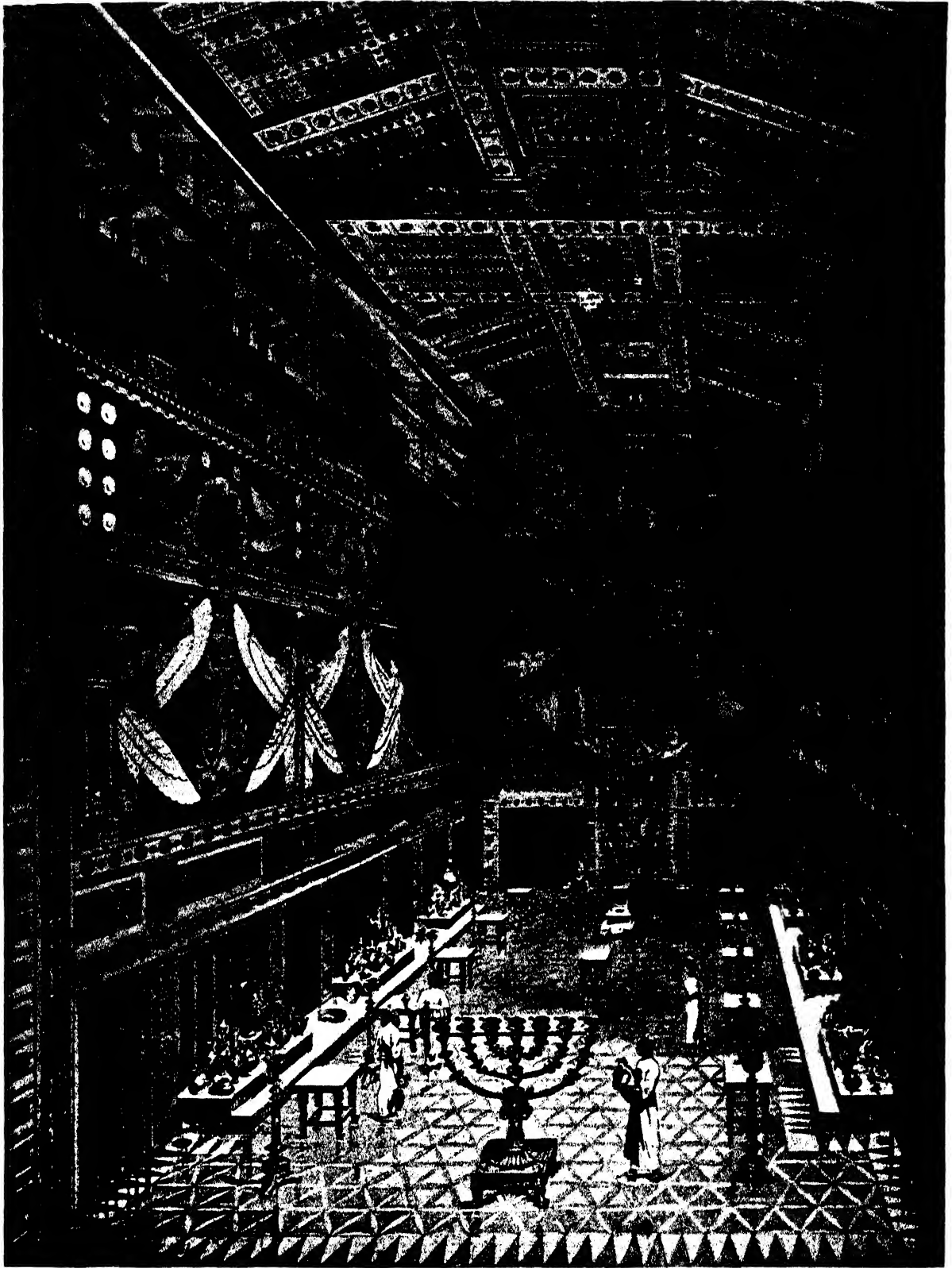
Painted specially for this work

THE JEWS BEFORE CALIGULA.

[By J. H. Valda.]

Owing to the popular revolts against the successors of Herod the Great, Judæa came under the immediate government of Rome. The Procurators plundered the country and treated the people with the utmost barbarity. The Emperor Caligula ordered his image to be set up throughout Judæa and worshipped, and as the Jews were petitioning him to revoke the edict news came that the Imperial statue had been erected in the Temple itself.

accessions of new territory and the extensions of power under Hyrcanus, these limits were even surpassed by the next occupant of the Judæan throne, Alexander Jannæus (104-76 B.C.). Under his widow and successor, Alexandra, there was peace at home and abroad, and tradition represented her reign as a golden age in which, to quote Schuerer again, "even the soil of the land, as if blessed on account of the piety of the Queen, enjoyed a truly miraculous fruitfulness." But the Hasmonean glory had reached its zenith. After Alexandra's death family quarrels made room for the interference of Rome, who wrested from the Jews their hard-won freedom. In 63 B.C. Pompey entered Jerusalem, penetrated into the Temple's innermost shrine, and severely handled the inhabitants of the capital. The city and the country were reduced to the rank of tributaries to Rome, a province of Syria being constituted. It is needless to follow out the consequences in detail. After the Battle of Actium (31 B.C.), the Roman Republic was turned into an empire, and Judæa was ruled by royal puppets of Rome. Herod the Great (37-4 B.C.) was a favourite of Rome, and under the protection of Augustus doubled his territory. But the domestic



From a reconstruction]

[By Ch. Chapiro.]

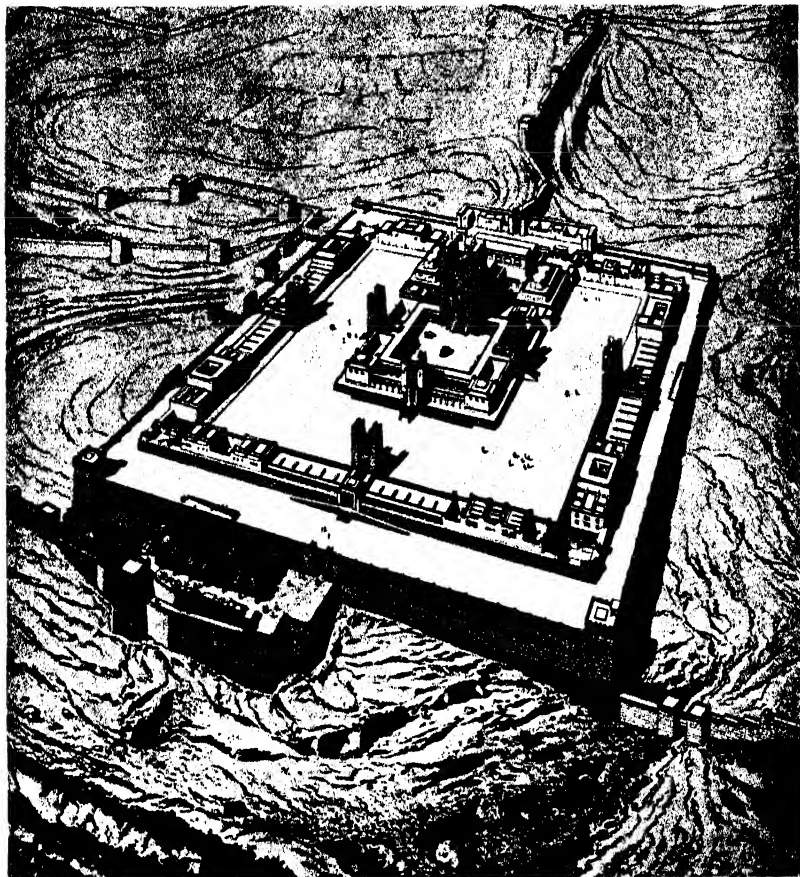
THE HOLY OF HOLIES IN SOLOMON'S TEMPLE.

The familiar descriptions of the royal buildings in the Books of Kings testify to King Solomon's love of a magnificence which was foreign to Jewish life. With regard to the Temple, many attempts have been made to reconstruct it from the documentary accounts. The version here reproduced has won considerable popularity.

troubles of his later years weakened his own power and disturbed the communal life. He beautified Jerusalem with vast buildings, but he never succeeded in winning the confidence of the populace. His reign ended, as it began, in blood. The consequences are seen in the turmoils and bitterness of the first Christian century, in the circumstances amid which Christianity had its rise, in the persecution of the Baptist, the sufferings and crucifixion of Jesus, the tribulations of St. Paul. Christianity was destined to vanquish Rome. With strong points of contact with prophetic Judaism, the morals and ideals of which it adopted, and with readiness to adapt itself to the mysticism of the Orient and the Hellenism of the Roman world, Christianity supplied an anchorage to many amid the cross-currents which disturbed humanity. Judaism, on its part, was to survive and outlive Rome—the Rome which never understood Judæa. Scorn of the

Jewish religion led to constant friction; turbulent outbreaks of zealots answered the Procurators' ill-considered interference with deep-seated convictions. The end was fore-destined. Rome put forth her might, and after a heroic defence on the part of the Jews, Vespasian and Titus in a campaign lasting from 68-70 A.D. reduced Judæa to servitude, and laid the Temple in the ruins which have never been rebuilt.

The historian Josephus has immortalized the scene. He records that Titus himself was an unwilling instrument in the actual burning of the Temple. Dion Cassius, on the other hand, states that while the legionaries hesitated because of the sanctity of the edifice, Titus urged them to the attack. As Josephus tells the tale it is majestic enough. One of the soldiers, he says, without waiting for orders, and "without any horror at so great a crime," but "possessed of a certain weird fury," snatched up a burning brand and, raised on the shoulders of a comrade, set fire to "a golden window, through



From a reconstruction

[By Ch. Chipiez.]

THE TEMPLE OF SOLOMON.

The regal pile of buildings which Solomon constructed owed its splendour to the skilled workmen of Tyre and Phœnicia. The stone was derived from the quarries near Jerusalem; most of the other material came from Hiram, king of Tyre, with whom Solomon was closely allied.

which there was a passage to the rooms round the sanctuary on the north side." It needed no art in the writer to paint the sequel. "As the flames went upwards, the Jews made a great clamour worthy of so mighty an affliction, and ran up to prevent it; reckless of their lives, they spared not their strength at all, since all was perishing which they had long been fighting to protect." *Vae Victis!* The Roman vengeance was thorough.

In the arenas of Cæsarea and Berytus the Jews were set to fight against beasts. Coins were struck bearing the effigy of Vespasian, and on the reverse the conquered Judæa, a woman near a palm-tree. More striking was the memorial at Rome of the triumph of Titus. Seven hundred Jews, including two of the heroes of the defence, John of Giscala and Simon, son of Giora, graced the procession, and the magnificent Arch of Titus still stands in Rome, on the Via Sacra, hard by the Tiber, confronting the

DATES OF JEWISH HISTORY

PERIODS.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The Patriarchal Age.		The current Jewish chronology begins its Era of the Creation (Anno Mundi) in the Autumn of 3761 B.C., thus 1914 A.D. corresponds to 5674-5 A.M. Modern authorities assign the date 2250-2100 B.C. to Abraham; Palestine was under Babylonian domination c. 2700-1700 B.C. The Tell el-Amarna letters attest the presence of Hebrews (Habiru) in Palestine c. 1400 B.C. Migration of Jacob into Egypt c. 1650 B.C. Palestine was under Egyptian domination c. 1500-1250 B.C.
The Judges.		Identifying Rameses II. (1300-1234 B.C.) with the Pharaoh of the Oppression, and Merenptah (1234-1214 B.C.) with the Pharaoh of the Exodus, then the latter event must be dated near the end of the 13th century B.C. The Biblical date is c. 1490 B.C. Israel mentioned in the Stele of Merenptah c. 1220 B.C. Settlement of Canaan by Joshua thirteenth century B.C.
The Monarchy.	1010	After period of Judges (including Deborah, Gideon, Jephthah, Samson, Eli, Samueh), kingdom becomes established, after and during struggles with Philistines, under SAUL (c. 1030-1010 B.C.). The Gibeonites and Amalekites are subdued, but Saul and his son Jonathan are defeated and slain in battle against Philistines at Gilboa. DAVID (c. 1010-970 B.C.) and SOLOMON (died c. 937 B.C.) ruled over the undivided kingdom. Under David, who successfully opposes various neighbouring powers (Philistines, Moabites, Ammonites, Edomites and Syrians), Israel occupies a predominant position among the peoples between the Euphrates and the Nile. Rebellion of Absalom; his defeat and death. The prophet Nathan tells the parable of the Ewe Lamb. Conspiracy of Adonijah to be nominated as David's successor. Bathsheba procures the nomination of Solomon. Solomon institutes a system of taxation, organizes trading expeditions, allies himself with Egypt. Jeroboam revolts and flees to Egypt. Traditional date of Solomon's Temple c. 1000 B.C.
Divided Monarchy: Judah.	c. 937 586	REHOBOAM (937) defeated by Sheshai; Jerusalem plundered. AHAZIAH (920) fights against King Jeroboam. ASA (917) besieged in Ramah by Baasha, King of Israel; relieved by the King of Damascus. JEHOSHAPHAT (874). Friendly relations between Judah and Israel; his son Jehoram marries Athaliah, daughter of Ahab, King of Israel. Attempts to reorganize trading expeditions. Allies himself with Ahab at Ramoth Gilead against Benhadad, King of Syria. Allies himself with Jehoram, King of Israel against Edom and Moab. JEHORAM (849). The Edonites rebel successfully. The city of Lihnah allies itself with the Philistines. AHASIAH (844) killed at Megiddo by Jehu, whereupon ATHALIAH (842), the queen-mother, murders the rest of the Royal family with the exception of Joash, who escapes. Erects a temple to Baal. Slain by Jehoiada, who proclaims Joash king. JOASH (836) attacked by Hazael, King of Syria, and forced to give up the Temple treasures; murdered after a reign of 40 years. AMAZIAH (797) avenges his father's murder. Conquers the Edonites; is defeated at Beth-Shemesh by Jehoash, King of Israel, who sacks Jerusalem. AZARIAH (UZZIAH) (778). A prosperous reign of 52 years; takes and fortifies Elath. Isaiah (740) onwards. AHAS (730). Pekah, King of Israel, and Resin, King of Syria, take Elath and besiege Jerusalem. Ahaz invites the help of Assyria. Judah becomes an Assyrian dependency. HEZEKIAH (715). After Sargon's death in 704, Merodach-baladan, King of Babylon, makes an alliance with Judah and Egypt against Assyria. Sennacherib conquers the coasts of Phoenicia and Philistia and Hezekiah submits and pays tribute 701 B.C. Sennacherib invests Jerusalem, but has to return to Assyria and raise the siege. Hezekiah regains land from the Philistines. MANASSEH (695) reigned 55 years; persecutes the prophets. AMON (641) murdered in the second year of his reign. JOSIAH (639) reforms the religion of Judah. Jeremiah (628-584). Josiah defeated by Necho, King of Egypt, at Megiddo. JEHOIAH (608) deposed and imprisoned by Necho, King of Egypt; and Jehoiaquin put on the throne as an Egyptian vassal. JEHOIAKIM (607). Nebuchadnezzar defeats Pharaoh Necho at Carchemish. Jehoiaquin becomes a Babylonian vassal, and rebels. JEHOIAKIM (599). Nebuchadnezzar takes Jerusalem and transports 10,000 of the inhabitants to Babylon. ZEDKIAH (597) induced in spite of Jeremiah's counsel to rebel by the promise of Egyptian help. Ezekiel (586). Jerusalem captured 586 B.C., people exiled and Gedaliah, a Babylonian prefect, appointed to rule Judah.
Israel.	937-722	JEHOBOAM (937) transfers his capital from Shechem to Peniel and thence to Tirzah; reigns 22 years; is constantly at war with Judah. NABAB (915) is murdered and all the house of Jeroboam slain by Baasha during a war against the Philistines. BAASHA (911) besieges the King of Judah, whose ally, the King of Syria, invades the kingdom. ELAH (886) murdered with all his house by Zimri. ZIMRI (887) is burnt in his palace at Tirzah by Omri. OMRI (887) builds Samaria and under his rule the ten tribes become of greater importance than Judah. The Biblical narrative gives the pre-eminence to Judah, but Samaria was also of great importance until its destruction in 722 B.C. Conquers Moab, but has to acknowledge the overlordship of Syria. AHAZ (875) marries Jezebel, the daughter of the King of Tyre. Pays tribute to Asurnazirpal. Makes peace with Judah; Athaliah, his daughter, is given in marriage to Jehorani, son of Jehoshaphat, King of Judah. Elijah (c. 870). Benhadad, King of Syria, besieges Samaria, but is defeated and shut up in Aphek. Elisha (850). Moabite Stone. The allied forces of Syria and Israel fight Shalmaneser II. at Karkar on the Orontes 854 B.C. Israel and Judah united against Syria, defeat and death of Ahab at Ramoth in Gilead. AHASIAH (853). Mesha, King of the Moabites, rebels and massacres the Jewish colonists in Moab. JEHORAM (851) allies himself with Jehoshaphat, King of Judah, against Moab and besieges Mesha in Kirhareth. Murdered by Jehu (842) murders Jezebel, 70 princes of the house of Samaria and 40 princes of the house of David. Massacres the priests of Baal; pays tribute to Shalmaneser. Hazael, King of Syria, overruns the country. JEHOIAH (815). Benhadad besieges Samaria, but is forced to return to protect Damascus against Assyria. JEHOASH (802) defeats Benhadad; captures Amaziah, King of Judah, at Bethshemesh. JEHOBOAM II. (782) invades Syria, subdues Moab and regains the Kingdom of David. Rules from Edom to Damascus. Hosea and Amos (760-750). ZECHARIAH (741) murdered by Shallum after a reign of six months. SHALLUM (740) defeated and killed by Menahem. MENAHEM (738) pays tribute to Tiglath Pileser. PEKAHIAH (737) slain by Pekah. PEKAH (736) allies himself with Syria and attacks Ahaz, King of Judah; conquers Elath, besieges Jerusalem. Ahaz invites the help of Tiglath Pileser, who sends an army against Damascus and Samaria; is murdered by Hoshea. HOSHEA (734) becomes an Assyrian vassal, but on the death of Tiglath Pileser allies himself to Shabaka, King of Egypt; surrenders himself to Shalmaneser IV. Samaria is taken by Sargon after a three years' siege (722 B.C.) and the population is deported. Assyrian colonists settle in Samaria.
Babylonian Exile and Persian Dominion.	586 444	Nebuchadnezzar destroys Jerusalem. Babylonian exile. Cyrus conquers Babylon (538 B.C.), permits return of Jews under Zerubbabel. Rebuilding of Temple 536-515 B.C. Palestine under Persian domination 538-332 B.C. Advent of Nehemiah as Governor in Jerusalem 444 B.C., in the reign of Artaxerxes I. (464-424 B.C.). He rebuilds the city walls, despite Samaritan hostility. Arrival of Ezra in the early years of Artaxerxes II (404-358 B.C.); according to other authorities Ezra reached Judaea in 458 B.C. The Elephantine Papyri testify to the existence of a Jewish community, with its temple, in Egypt c. 410. Ezra reorganizes the religious life of Judaea.

DATES OF JEWISH HISTORY—continued

PERIODS.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Babylonian Exile and Persian Dominion—continued.	B.C. 333	To the middle of the Persian period belongs according to critical opinion the redaction of the Pentateuch. Alexander the Great overthrows Persian Empire, and after the capture of Tyre (333 B.C.) marches through Palestine, without, however, showing hostility to the Jews. He founds the new city of Alexandria, and (according to the report of Josephus) admitted many Jewish colonists. After Alexander's death (323 B.C.) Egypt is ruled over by Ptolemy and his successors, while Syria becomes an independent Kingdom under Seleucus I. Beginning of the Seleucid era 312-311 B.C.
Greek Period.		Palestine under Hellenic domination (a) 302-198 B.C. under Ptolemies, (b) 198-141 B.C. under the Seleucids.
Under the Ptolemies.	302-198	Judaea, the borderland between the rival Ptolemies and Seleucids, becomes subject to Hellenistic influence both from South and North. For nearly a century and a half Palestine is politically subject to Egypt, with intervals of Syrian domination (as after the battle of Ipsus, 301 B.C.). During this period Judaea suffers, as when Ptolemy captures Jerusalem by a sudden assault on the Sabbath. Jews refused to fight on that day, but resolved later on to carry on defensive operations if attacked on the Sabbath. Ptolemy confers equal rights on the Jews of Egypt. Ptolemy's successors Philadelphus (285-247 B.C.) and Euergetes I. (247-222) are well-disposed to the Jews. The former figures in tradition as the patron of Judaism: to his reign being ascribed the (Septuagint) translation of the Pentateuch into Greek, which belongs to a somewhat later date, as does also the growth of the Wisdom literature. Under Philopator (222-205) Egypt declines, and though the Egyptians defeat the Syrians at Raphis (217), Palestine soon after passes into Syrian control.
Under the Seleucids.	198-141	In 198 B.C. Antiochus the Great, the befriender of Hannibal, overthrows the Egyptian army after the battle of Panion, and Palestine remains under Syrian rule until the Romans intervene. Under Antiochus IV. (175-164 B.C.) Judaea suffers persecution. Internal quarrels regarding succession to the priesthood, encourage the direct interference of the Syrian King. On his return from his first Egyptian expedition (170 B.C.) Antiochus enters Jerusalem and plunders the Temple. Two years later he begins his active Hellenizing campaign. The Judæan revolt. The Book of Daniel written. Rise of the Maccabees (167), and their victories over the Syrian invaders (166-5).
	165	Rededication of Temple by Judas Maccabæus 165 B.C. Temple of Onies founded in Egypt c. 154. Autonomy granted to Jews in Judaea and the right of coinage under Simon.
Hasmonean Dynasty.	143	Hasmonean Dynasty begins with SIMON (143-135 B.C.); he is succeeded by JOHN HYRCANUS I. (135-104), ARISTOBULUS I. (104-103), ALEXANDER JANNÆUS (103-76), ALEXANDRA (76-67), and ARISTOBULUS II. (67-63). Pharisaic and Sadducean Sects come into prominence c. 100 B.C.
Judaea under Rome.	63	Pompey captures Jerusalem. Under the Roman hegemony, the Jews are ruled by HYRCANUS II. (63-40) and ANTIGONUS (40-37). 37 B.C. HEROD THE GREAT (37-4 B.C.). Herod elevates to the high-priesthood the Queen's brother Aristobulus, but orders his death the same year (35 B.C.). Herod summoned to Laodicea by Antony, but dismissed with favour (34 B.C.). Herod's successful war with the Arabians (34 B.C.). Hillel president of the Council or Sanhedrin (c. 30 B.C.). After the battle of Actium Herod joins party of Augustus, who confirms him as king and grants many cities to him (30 B.C.). Execution of the queen Mariamne (29 B.C.). Theatre built in Jerusalem, Samaria restored, royal palace erected in the capital. Augustus visits Syria (20 B.C.). Herod begins the new Temple buildings in the same year. Herod visits Rome (12 B.C.). Embittered quarrels in Herod's family: Herod executes his sons Alexander and Aristobulus and puts Pharisees to death (7 B.C.). Revolts against Herod suppressed: Antipater executed; death of Herod five days later (4 B.C.).
	A.D. 6	Judaea under Roman Procurators from 6 A.D. HEROD ANTIPAS (4 B.C.-39 A.D.). Pontius Pilate (26 A.D.). Rise of Christianity. AGRIPPA I. (of the Herodian house) becomes King of Judaea (41 A.D.). Gamaliel I. president of Sanhedrin. AGRIPPA II. (49 A.D.). Rebellion against the last of the Procurators, Gessius Florus, in Jerusalem, and outbreak of the war against Rome 66 A.D.
	70	Temple destroyed by Titus. Academy formed in Jamnia by Johanan ben Zakkai.
	135	Suppression of Bar Cochba's rebellion against Hadrian. Jewish national organization in Palestine ends.
Period of the Dispersion.	135-1038	Jerusalem rebuilt as Aelia Capitolina. Jews excluded from new city. Revival of Judaism leads to development of the Law: compilation of the Rabbinic Codes, the Mishnah (c. 200 A.D.) and Talmud (3rd to 6th centuries A.D.). Babylonia a new centre of Jewish life under Exilarchs and Geonim, or heads of the schools, who held central authority in Judaism till 1038 A.D. Rise of the Karaite schism (760). From fourth century Jews subjected to disabilities in many parts. Moors invade Spain (711). In tenth century Spain becomes centre of Jewish influences.
Spanish Era.	1038-1204	Hasdai ibn Shaprut, Jewish minister in Cordova Khalifate. Rise of the new Hebrew Literature. Progress in France. Rashi (1040-1105). In Spain, Judah Halevi (1086-1142), Maimonides (1135-1204). First Crusade (1096) leads to sufferings of the Jews on the Rhinelands.
Ghetto Period.	1215-1492	Fourth Lateran Council Jews compelled to wear badges (1215). Jews promote study of science and philosophy. Jews expelled from England (1290), France (1306). The Black Death (1348) leads to mythical charges against the Jews. Spanish Inquisition (1480). Expulsion of the Jews from Spain (1492). Ghetto ordained (1516).
	1507-1747	Reuchlin and the Humanistic renaissance. Jewish Law codified by Karo (1488-1575). Joseph Nasi appointed ruler of Naxos 1567. Marranos settled in Holland 1593. Cossack persecutions 1648. Jews readmitted to England and settle in America 1655. Sabbatai Zebi in 1665 claims to be Messiah. Spinoza (1632-1677).
Period of Emancipation.		



Printed specially for this work.

THE SIEGE OF JERUSALEM, A.D. 70.

[By W. S. Engdottopila.]

The Jews, driven to rebellion by the barbarities of the Roman Procurators, suffered also from civil strife. When Vespasian suspended operations for a year upon the death of Nero the rivalries of Simon bar Giora and John of Giscala, of the Zealots and the Sicarii, were as destructive as the Roman arms. The fearful scenes of riot, famine and torture made the siege of Jerusalem the most terrible in history. In August, A.D. 70, the Temple was carried by assault and burnt to the ground, and within a month only three towers and a small piece of wall stood amongst the smouldering ruins to mark the site of the city of Jerusalem.

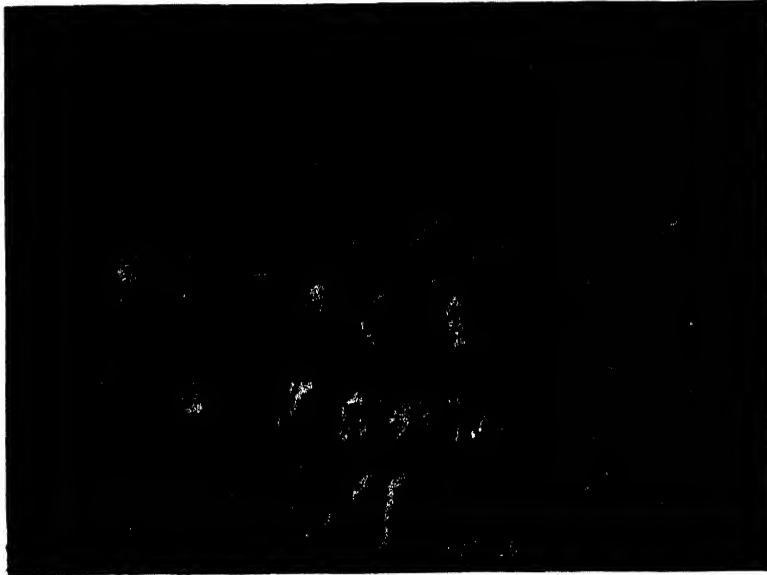


Photo by]

[Munsell & Co.

THE ARCH OF TITUS.

When Vespasian became emperor his son Titus undertook the siege of Jerusalem and upon its fall celebrated a triumph. The bas-reliefs on his triumphal arch show the spoils of the Temple, and are the only authentic reproductions that exist.

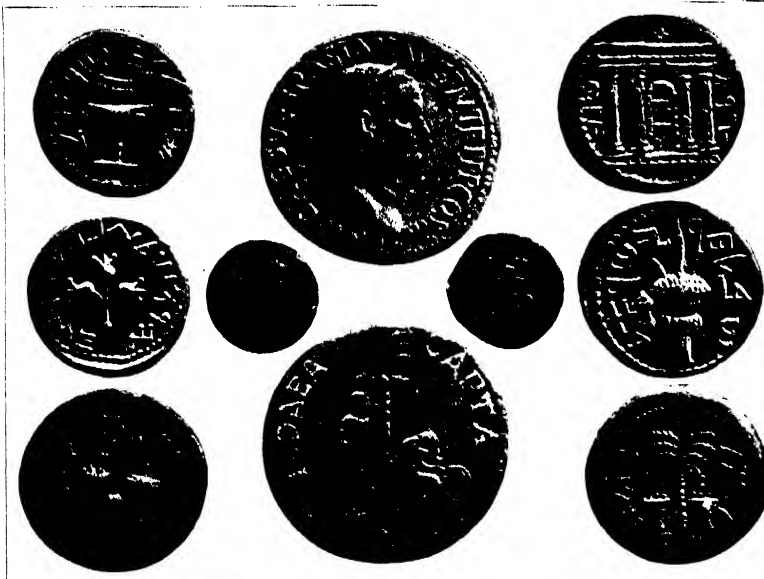
tain all the Jews, because of their large number ; for which reason they are spread over most parts of Asia and Europe, both on the mainland and on islands. They regard Jerusalem, in which lies the Holy Temple of the Most High God, as their mother-city ; but the various countries in which their fathers,

Forum and Colosseum. On bas-reliefs are depicted the spoils of the Temple, and these figures remain the only authentic reproductions of the sacred vessels of Jerusalem. Rome had laid the Temple in ruins, and at Rome are fittingly preserved the symbols of the fane round which cluster so many memories.

But the ruin applied merely to the material edifice. Athens and Jerusalem died, as Renan put it, that the world might live by them. Greek and Hebraic cultures both became fuller in power when they transcended local limitations. Nearly a century before the destruction of Jerusalem, Philo, the noblest product of Hellenistic Judaism, had used a remarkable figure of speech. "One country," said the Alexandrian, "cannot con-

tain all the Jews, because of their large number ; for which reason they are spread over most parts of Asia and Europe, both on the mainland and on islands. They regard Jerusalem, in which lies the Holy Temple of the Most High God, as their mother-city ; but the various countries in which their fathers, grandfathers, and ancestors have dwelt, they regard as their fatherlands, for in them they were born and bred." The affection of the Jews for Palestine and Jerusalem continued after the Roman conquest ; but in a real sense the Jews reconstructed their mother-city as a city of the spirit. Henceforward the Jew was everywhere endeavouring to be permitted to treat the country of his settlement as his father-land, sharing all its aspirations and responsibilities ; for mother-land he had the Law of Judaism and the ideals inherited from the past experience of the community.

The whole of Jewish history since A.D. 70 has turned on the determination of the Jews to remain at once within and without the world, to maintain loyalty both to father-land and mother-land, and on the reluctance of governments to admit the justice and feasibility of the Jewish claim.



From "A Handy Guide to Jewish Coins," by Rev. E. Rogers. By permission of Messrs. Spink and the author.

COINS ILLUSTRATING JEWISH HISTORY.

Reading from left to right: Simon Maccabaeus shekel, obverse, chalice. Vespasian, obverse, Laureate head of Vespasian. Second Revolt, 132-135 A.D., Jerusalem, obverse, screen before Holy of Holies, the Ark and Mercy Seat within. Reverse of first coin showing spring flower. Pontius Pilate, obverse, Augur's wand; reverse, Date Liz, A.D. 30-31, in wreath. Reverse of third coin, Lulab and Citron Overstruck Tetradrachm. Early Maccabaeon copper, obverse, Citron between two baskets of flowers. Reverse of second coin, Jew standing by palm tree, Jewess on ground; inscription *Judaea Capta*. Reverse of early Maccabaeon coin, palm tree between two baskets of flowers.

At all events, for several centuries after the age of Titus, the Jews were engaged in strengthening the "mother-land" of their moral and religious system. The loss of the Temple was naturally not readily acquiesced in. But after the failure of Bar Cochba's revolt, a spirited but futile attempt to throw off the Roman yoke in Hadrian's reign (132-135 A.D.), it was obvious that there was no hope of an immediate restoration. In the meantime the religious revival had been making strong headway. A little before the capture of Jerusalem, the Romans had licensed the transference of the Jewish Sanhedrin (Council) and Academy to Jamnia, a city on the sea-coast. First in this southern home, and afterwards in more northern centres, the teachers of Israel worked at the collection, amplification and codifying of the traditions of the people. Thus two movements were afoot almost contemporaneously—the Apostolic foundation of the Christian Church, and the Rabbinic reorganization of the Synagogue. There were, for a while, hostilities between the two movements, especially as regards those who were anxious to



Painted specially for this work by

[G. D. Roulandson.]

THE COMPILATION OF THE TALMUD.

During the first five centuries of the Christian era a great number of Rabbinical ethical, legal and ritual discussions and enactments were collected and edited under the name of the Talmud. This work is still the basis of the religious life of large numbers of the Jews.

remain within both camps. When, however, Church and Synagogue began to feel themselves independent of each other, these hostilities were mitigated, until the Christianization of the Roman Empire conferred on the Church political power.

In so far as the Synagogue is concerned, the fruits of the religious and scholastic movement, from the second to the sixth centuries of the Christian era, were seen in the Mishnah and Talmud. The former, the Mishnah or Doctrine, is a code of moral and ritual law; it is written in the neo-Hebrew dialect, which was chiefly used for academic purposes, though Aramaic had become the popular idiom of the Jews. The Mishnah was completed in Palestine at about the year 200 A.D., the redactor being Judah the Patriarch; the work of compilation had been in process for some time previously. The Talmud—a word meaning much the same as Mishnah—is, on the other hand, largely written in Aramaic, which, as already remarked, had come to form the common speech of the Jews several centuries before the Christian era. The Talmud was developed both in Palestine and in Babylonia. The two codes—the Mishnah and the Talmud—worked as a permanent force against disintegration. They were in themselves the expression of a great

system of ethics as applied to ritual and to life, and they were the rallying-point for the Jews in the centuries of tribulation which were to follow.

These codes, then, organized the Jewish people into a religious community. Under Theodosius II. (beginning of fifth century) the office of Patriarch in Palestine was suppressed; but the turning-point in the relation of the Jews to the Roman government had come earlier, when Christianity became the state religion under Constantine (312). Under the Christian emperors religion very naturally tended to constitute a source of political discrimination; and though the Roman Christian law treated Judaism as a lawful cult (*religio licita*), yet the course of legislation was in the direction of excluding Jews from participation in civil rights. The legal repression of the Jews found a strong supporter in Justinian (527-567),



By permission of]

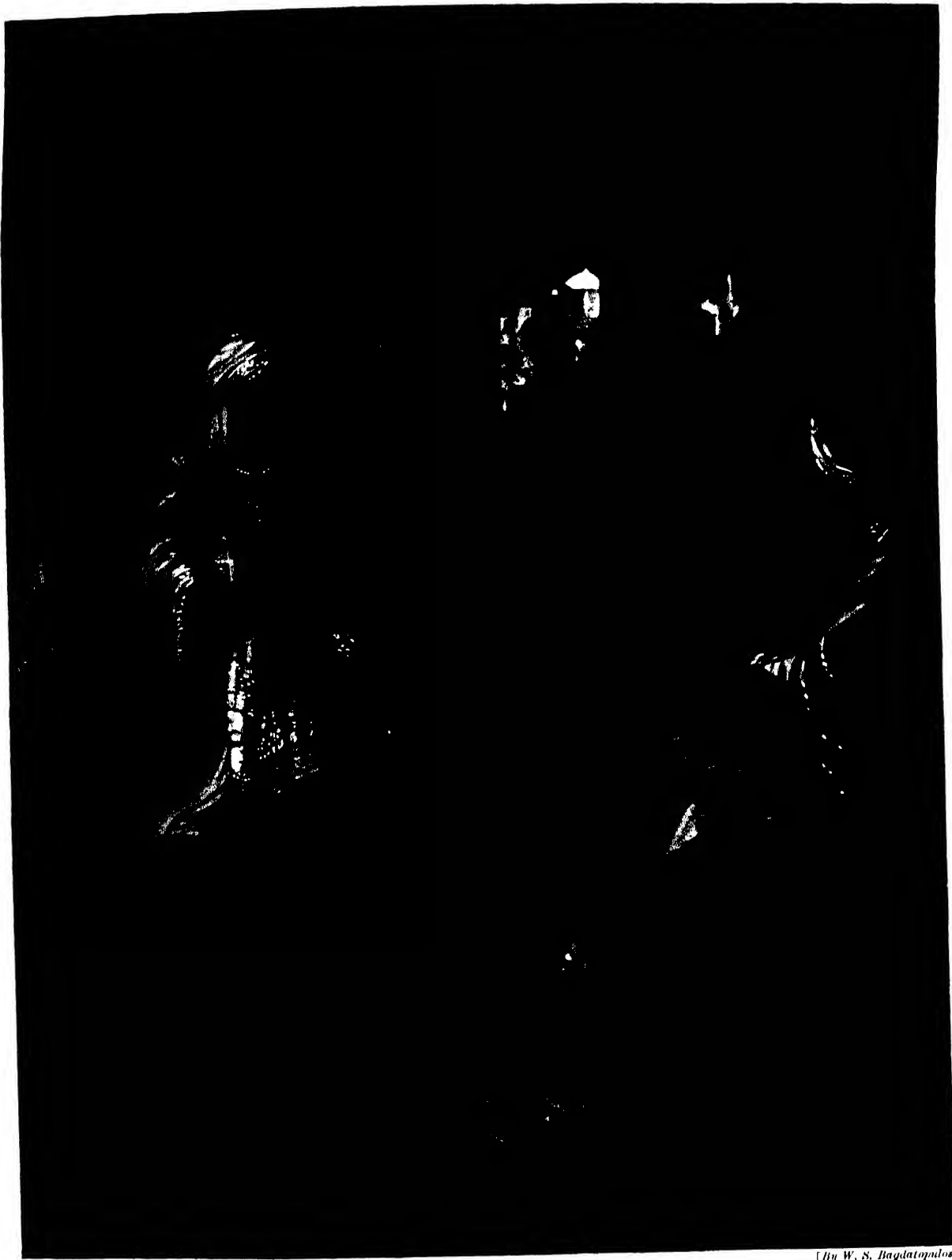
[The Palestine Exploration Fund.

THE SYNAGOGUE OF KAFR BIR'IM, GALILEE (IInd CENTURY A.D.).

Synagogues for prayer and instruction in the Scriptures were established in all Jewish settlements before the Christian era. According to some authorities the institution was as old as the Babylonian captivity. Among the best preserved of the ancient Synagogues in Palestine is that at Kafr Bir'im.

who denied to the Jews privileges which before his reign they had at least tacitly enjoyed. From the time of Justinian many centuries were to elapse before the Jews again became eligible for posts of public honour.

During these same centuries the Jews in Persia—the old Babylonia—were allowed more autonomy. Already in the second century A.D. Babylonia was acquiring importance for the Jews, and in the ensuing period the district situated in Southern Mesopotamia formed a new home for the community. At their head was the Exilarch, or Prince of the Captivity, a vassal of the Persian throne, and himself surrounded with semi-royal state. The Jewish Academies were, moreover, fully organized in Babylonia, and the Gaon, or the head of each of the two great schools of Sura and Pombaditha, exercised world-wide influence. Judaism on the side of religious law and ritual was for several centuries controlled from the Babylonian academies.



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]

THE EXILARCH

The Exilarch, the title given to the head of the Babylonian Jews, held a position of honour, recognized by the Parthians, Persians and Arabs, and exercised various prerogatives. The title was hereditary in a family that traced its descent from the house of David. A contemporary account describes the installation ceremonies of the Exilarch in the tenth century and testifies to his importance. On certain occasions of state the Exilarch sat on a throne facing the Caliph.

The change occurred when Islam spread to Europe. The religion founded by Mohammed (570-632) marked a new era in Jewish progress. Mohammed himself had taken up a position of hostility to the Jews so soon as he found that they refused to accept him. The second successor of the Prophet, the Khalif Omar, formulated a code in which Christians and Jews were handled with severity. This code remained nominally in effect for a long period, and had it been enforced there would have been no room under Islam for Church or Synagogue. But Omar's restrictions were not carried out even during that Khalif's lifetime. Fanatics among the Mohammedans often used these and similar laws to justify their persecutions, and from time to time there were intervals of bitter intolerance. But not only were the Moslems given to treating laws as made to be broken, but the Koran, by requiring of the faithful kindness to the "peoples of the Book" made it possible for a Mohammedan ruler to show favour to non-Islamic heretics without thereby himself suffering suspicion of latitudinarianism. Nowhere did this phenomenon more brilliantly display itself than in Spain, after the Moorish conquest of 711. The Gothic rulers had been narrow and harsh; their Moorish successors encouraged a culture which, for depth and tolerance, had no parallel since the great days of Hellenistic Alexandria.

In the tenth century Spain began to occupy the first place in Jewish life, and from that period onwards the fortunes of the Jewish people have been bound up, not with the Orient, but with Europe and with the great republic created across the Atlantic by European migrations. By general consent, the Spanish period of Jewish history has been recognized as the Golden Age of the mediæval Jewry. During this epoch elsewhere the Jews were making much progress, especially in the regions surrounding the Rhine. There the French school of Rabbis, most noted among them Rashi (1040-1105), did valiant service for the spiritual uplifting of the Synagogue. But the Crusades had seriously detrimental effects, and it was



Photo by]

THE MOSQUE OF OMAR BUILT UPON THE SITE OF THE TEMPLE.

[The Photochrom Co.

After Mecca and Medina, Jerusalem was revered by the Mohammedans as the temple of the Holy Land, and in 637 A.D. Abu Obeidah attempted to gain possession of it. The Patriarch Sophronius capitulated after a siege of four months on condition that the articles of the treaty should be ratified by the authority and presence of the Caliph. Omar, who treated the inhabitants with courtesy, returned to Mecca, but ordered a mosque to be built on the site of the Temple of Solomon.



Painted specially for this work

[By G. D. Rowlandson.]

THE KHAZARS ADOPT JUDAISM (VIIIth CENTURY A.D.).

Among the religious debates so common in the Middle Ages one of the most famous is that which was convened by the King of the Khazars, an important people living in the Caucasus. After hearing the representatives of Christianity, Judaism and Islam the King decided in favour of Judaism.

rare for a Jew to find admission to the general life. In Spain, however, the case was very different. A great outburst of literary and scientific activity was matched by brilliant opportunities for serving the State. Hasdai ibn Shaprut (915-990) was physician, linguist, poet and statesman. This is a combination which has been found in other periods ; but Moorish Andalusia brought to perfection the union of political sagacity and devotion to the Muses. Under Hasdai's influence the Jews of Spain shared in the prevalent culture of Abd-er-Rahman's court. Cordova, under this Khalif and his successors, became one of the centres of European progress in manufactures, art, philosophy. In all this the Andalusian Jews shared. They were noted in medicine and diplomacy, and revealed much skill in applying the science of astronomy to the art of navigation. It has been seriously maintained that Columbus was a Jew ; certain it is that in his discovery of America the explorer was accompanied by at least one Jewish associate. It is one of the curiosities of historical coincidence that the same year, 1492, saw the expulsion of the Jews from Spain and the discovery of America, a continent which was destined to provide in our own time a refuge for hundreds of thousands of persecuted Russian Jews. Illustrative of the catholicity of Jewish culture in the Peninsula is the fact that the head of the Spanish Jews in 1492 was Isaac Abrabanel, who was minister to more than one king and also the author of some famous commentaries on the Hebrew Bible.

That the Jews rendered conspicuous services to mediæval learning is well known. They made original contributions to the store, and they were the intermediaries by which the science of ancient Greece found its way to the European universities, and the folklore of India to the hearths and homes of Western peoples. In this work they were associated with the Arabs. Again, the Jewish philosophers played a significant rôle in the conversion of Scholasticism into an instrument of progress. Maimonides (1135-1204), physician and Rabbi, wrote a " Guide " for the Jews, but its influence transcended the bounds of Jewry. He helped others besides his own community to harmonize Aristotle with Scripture ; he influenced Aquinas as well as Spinoza. What is most interesting in the history of Scholasticism is just

the friendly co-operation of Christian, Moslem and Jew in the same aspiration to reach the heart of truth. The scholars of Church, Mosque and Synagogue helped each other, sometimes unconsciously, but at other times with very definite recognition of mutual dependence.

In general, it must be observed that even in epochs when the Jews were most obstinately barred from intercourse with other men there were many exceptions. This remark applies not merely to Christian defenders of the Jews. Such an instance, indeed, occurred during the Second Crusade, which owed much to the eloquent propaganda of Bernard of Clairvaux. In 1145-6 he moved through Germany and France, inspiring his hearers to take up arms against the Crescent. To his dismay, the Rhine

valley was reddened by the blood of Jewish victims to the passions he had aroused. Nobly he stemmed the torrent. He denounced the perpetrators of the outrages, and his forceful protests had instantaneous effect. Much as this action honours St. Bernard, there were others who deserve as high praise. The sombre picture presented by the legal relations between Jews and Christians during the Middle Ages represents only part of the truth. Law might raise barriers, but human nature refused to be contained by them. Many literary friendships between Jews and Christians are recorded. In Italy in the tenth century the Jewish physician Donnolo and the Christian monk Nilus were close intimates, and so were the Jew Anatoli and the Christian Michael Scotus. In co-operation adherents of Church and Synagogue worked at the writings of Arab philosophers. Most delightful is the fact of the friendship between Dante and Immanuel of Rome. "Love," said Immanuel in an Italian sonnet, "has never read the Ave Maria, Love knows neither law nor creed. Love cannot be restrained by a Paternoster, but to all who question his supreme power Love answers, It is my will." Reuchlin, of whom more must be said later, had more than one Jewish associate. Menasseh ben Israel, too, had several Christian friends. What has been said of literary intimacy is



Painted specially for this work

[By Stephen Reid.]

THE FLIGHT OF MAIMONIDES, 1165 A.D.

Maimonides, the physician to the court of Saladin, contributed largely to medieval learning. When he was only twenty-five years of age he became famous owing to his treatise urging the Jews to seek escape from enforced conformity to Islam. Five years later (1165) he emigrated from Fez to Palestine; during the voyage he nearly suffered shipwreck, and always kept the anniversary of his escape as a fast day.

true also with regard to social intercourse. Just as common studies brought Jews together, so did common amusements. At musical entertainments and at games we find in the mediæval period all classes united.

It was, nevertheless, in Moslem Spain that this intercourse most regularly confronts us. Nor is it then to be wondered at that to the same environment must be attributed the rise of the new Hebrew poetry. When Jerusalem fell, the lyric inspiration of the Jews was interrupted. Snatches of poetry are, however, found in the Talmud, and the liturgy of the Synagogue was enriched in the first centuries of the Christian era with prose compositions which reflect the dignity of the Biblical style. But it was in the sunshine of Spain that the Hebrew Muse recovered her richness of tone. Among many who wrote poems destined to enduring fame two names stand out. These were Solomon ibn Gebirol and Jehuda



OBJECTS OF JEWISH ART.

Reading from left to right from the top: Bag for holding phylacteries. Spice-box. Covering for a scroll and a gilt candlestick, both from the Synagogue at Padua. One of the bronze pillars of Solomon's Temple (Chipiez). Example of mezuzah, or decoration for the door-post, containing the inscription from the Pentateuch (Deut. vi., etc.). Scroll of the Law, with breastplate, bells, and pointer. Hanging lamp. Silver spice-box from Bevis Marks Synagogue, London. Lamp used at Maccabean feast. "Chair of Elijah" used at Initiation ceremony. Symbolical representation of the Ark of the Law (glass), third century A.D., from the Jewish Catacombs at Rome.



Painted specially for this work

[By G. D. Rowlandson.]

BERNARD OF CLAIRVAUX DEFENDS THE JEWS.

The Spanish period of Jewish history was the Golden Age of medieval Jewry. Though the Jews were elsewhere making much progress, the feelings inspired by the Crusades were prejudicial to their advancement. During the Second Crusade, Bernard of Clairvaux forcibly denounced and succeeded in checking the massacres which his eloquence indirectly provoked.

In his love-poems he points forward to Heine, in his hymns backward to David. His philosophy was marked by a tenderness and warmth which are far separated from the cold intellectualism of Maimonides. "Israel," Halevi claimed in his greatest prose work, "is among the nations as the heart among the limbs." If this dictum be open to dispute, not so its inspiring power for the Jews themselves.

Halevi used as the scheme of his philosophical tractate an incident which deserves to be alluded to. This was the conversion of the Crimean Khazars to Judaism in the eighth century. The poet-philosopher represents the King of the Khazars as entering into a disputation with the representatives of various faiths before he adopts the creed of Judaism. This fact leads us back to Spain, to the period subsequent to Halevi. One of the most curious episodes in mediæval history is the institution of public discussions between Rabbis and monks. The Jews were reluctant to enter into these tourneys of words. They felt that victory would be even more disastrous than defeat. Certainly, such disputations produced no good, and frequently resulted in dire effects. They agitated the onlookers, and the irritation of the mob was the signal sometimes for violence, sometimes for repressive laws. The Jews themselves regarded these displays as among the most serious causes of the expulsion from Spain.

Halevi. Both used Hebrew as their medium of expression. From their age there has been an unbroken line of Hebrew poets; the present time is witnessing a remarkable enthusiasm for the Hebrew language, thereby continuing the Spanish tradition. Ibn Gebirol's poetical masterpiece, written about the middle of the eleventh century, was called the "Royal Crown"; it is a magnificent series of outpourings on God and the world. One of his lines, "From Thee to Thee I fly," expresses as no other Hebrew poet has done the human soul's refuge in the Divine mercy from the Divine justice. Gebirol, moreover, enjoyed a twofold reputation. If his poetry gave him a niche in the Judaic temple of fame, his philosophy won for him renown in Christian circles. For several centuries the "Fountain of Life" was known only in Latin, and as the work of Avicbrol. It was not till recent times that the book was identified as a treatise by the Jew Ibn Gebirol. Jehuda Halevi, too, was philosopher as well as poet. He was born in Toledo in 1085, and died at Damascus in 1140, on his pilgrimage to Jerusalem, love for which city animated his soul. His secular Hebrew poems were much admired, and his additions to the religious lyrics of the Synagogue are recognized as the finest expressions of the Hebrew genius since the close of the Psalter.

The expulsion of the Jews from Spain, however, was mainly the work of the Spanish Inquisition. To Torquemada, rather than to over-zealous theologians or energetic occupants of the Papal throne, must be assigned responsibility for the most notorious engine of bigotry ever forged. Rome, however, was often forced to invent weapons which it shrank from using. Throughout the Middle Ages, at the instigation of foreign zealots, were issued Papal Bulls which injuriously affected the Jews, and tended to segregate and degrade them. The most hateful means of degradation was the infliction of the Badge on the outer garments of Jews, and the restriction of the Jews to usury as the only occupation permitted to them. Josephus, writing in the first century, contrasts the Jews and Phœnicians on the ground that the latter, not the former, were traders. And, speaking of the Jews while they still dwelt in their own land, the same historian asserts that the chief occupation was agriculture, and that the proper education of the masses, and not the accumulation of wealth, was the end and aim of the Jewish polity. When, however, they were, after several centuries of mediæval tribulation, practically ousted, in Central and Northern Europe, from the holding of land and from participation in the manifold activities of economic and social life, they were permitted and encouraged by the rulers of various countries to engage in money-lending. Canon Law made this pursuit illegal for Christians. Thus Pope Alexander III., in 1179, excommunicated all Christian usurers. It became convenient, then, to encourage a class of capitalists who were not liable to excommunication, and the kings would practically become sleeping partners in the operations of Jews. As commerce, however, was impossible without interest on capital, some Christian bankers, such as the Cahorsins and Lombards, discovered means by which interest could indirectly be charged. It was the competition of these Italian financiers that rendered the Jews less necessary, for instance, in England, with the result that Edward I. expelled them in 1290.

The Jewish Badge owed its existence to one of the greatest of popes, Innocent III. In the Lateran Council of 1215 it was decreed that henceforth it must be made possible to detect a Jew by his outward



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE JEWS PAY HOMAGE TO THE POPE.

The Jews annually presented the Pope with a scroll of the Torah (Pentateuch) as a mark of honour. The Pope returned it over his left shoulder as a formal expression of scorn. The ceremony was derived from the action of Innocent VII.



Printed by L. Kanaa

The origin of the Ghetto
Ages. The Jews felt secure
officially enforced Ghetto was

he meaning of the word
the segregation which
tuted in Venice in 1516.

lost in obscurity, but separate quarters seem to have been allotted to the Jews in various cities during the early
intolerance of their neighbours imposed upon them, though at times the Ghetto was raided and the inhabitants
ter the French Revolution the Ghetto system declined.

THE GHETTO.

With permission of the Berlin Photographic Co.

inturies of the Middle
massacred. The first

garb. The size, colour and shape of the distressful stigma were not defined, but a yellow wheel on the outside garment was the most usual. In France the Jews were actually compelled to purchase the badges from official retailers; thus the royal exchequer found a new source of income in the sale of the yellow wheels to the unfortunate Jews. This treatment of the latter as a pariah class had serious consequences on the Jews themselves. They lost their refinements of manner and speech. For centuries this effect was intensified by constant attacks on the persons and characters of the children of Israel. Mythical charges were made against them, and they were assailed also because of the actual degradation which the wearing of badges and the incidence of social disabilities inflicted on them. The final touch was the creation of Ghettoes. The first Ghetto was constituted in Venice in 1516. Long before, Jews had in



Painted specially for this work

[By Stephen Reid.]

ISAAC ABRABANEL, STATESMAN AND COMMENTATOR

Isaac Abrabanel (1437-1508) was famous as a philosopher and statesman. Alfonso V. of Portugal and Queen Isabella of Spain made use of his brilliant gifts until the temper of the Inquisition brought about the expulsion of the Jews from Spain in 1492. He wrote commentaries on the Bible and philosophical works on the Jewish religion which exercised a wide influence on the thought of his time.

various places tended to congregate in special quarters of the town; but the official Ghetto was of another type. Space was limited, right of egress restricted, but the most unpleasant consequence was the enforced isolation. The three Ghetto centuries (sixteenth to eighteenth) were the real dark ages of mediæval Judaism. They followed, moreover, the expulsion from Spain, the greatest blow suffered by the Jews since the destruction of the Temple by Titus. Spain was a name to conjure with. Elsewhere degraded and oppressed, the Jew turned to Spain with hope and pride. The blow fell in 1492, and within a generation the Jews everywhere were pent up in overcrowded Ghettoes. Paul IV.'s Ghettoes completed the work of Innocent III.'s badges, and it seemed as though the star of Jewry was set in eternal eclipse.

In the history of men events are never single. At the very epoch when the first walls of the Ghetto were being erected, there began the movement which was destined not only to overthrow the walls of

the Ghetto, but to raze to the ground many more of the barriers of mediævalism. It was not, indeed, the Protestant Reformation that produced these consequences for the Jews.' Yet the mighty upheaval known as the Reformation so profoundly changed the European outlook, that the Synagogue was bound to feel its effects. Luther's personal attitude to the Jews was not friendly, and though the Lutheran reformation, like such anticipatory movements as that of the Albigenes, owed a good deal to Judaic thought and idealism, nevertheless the Protestant Reformation as such hardly modified men's attitude



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

JOSEPH NASSI BEFORE SELIM.

Joseph Nassi took refuge in Constantinople in 1553 and rapidly became of the highest importance as a statesman and financier. The Sultan Soliman sent him with a large present to his son Selim, who made him Duke of Naxos. He acquired Tiberias, invited Jews to colonize it, and did much to promote the industries of Palastine.

was strangely interwoven with mysticism. Scholasticism was purely intellectual; the new learning was also æsthetic and emotional. This synthesis led, in due course, through the Jew Spinoza to the modern philosophies of life. It started with the Humanistic mysticism, and this latter derived from the Jewish Kabbala some of its most fertile elements. Leaders of the New Learning, foremost among them Reuchlin himself, turned eagerly to the Kabbala.

Hence Reuchlin, when he taught the modern world Hebrew, also taught it a more friendly regard towards Hebraism. What the Renaissance did for Italy and the South, Humanism did for Germany and the North.

to the Jewish question. Far more important for the Jewish rejuvenation was that side of the European movement with which others than Luther were chiefly concerned, the Revival of Learning and the growth of Humanism. To John Reuchlin (1455-1522), and his younger contemporary, Desiderius Erasmus (1466-1536), belongs the glory of emancipating the mediæval mind. Mediævalism does not deserve all the harsh verdicts passed on it, but it certainly lacked the pragmatic breadth of view which results from devotion to comparative studies. Reuchlin taught the sixteenth century the same lesson which Tennyson taught the nineteenth—that "God fulfils himself in many ways." In particular, Humanism, basing itself on a renewed study of the Hebrew and Greek languages, stood for a culture which took account, for the good of Christendom, of the forces represented by ancient Judæa and Hellas. Jerusalem and Athens once more became first-hand influences in European culture and life. It was impossible, in the presence of this changed attitude towards Judaism of the past, that the Jews of the present should be suffered by the Humanists to remain unchampioned. There was another ground for fresh interest in the Jews. Humanism



From the painting by Solomon A. Hart, R.A.

THE EXPULSION OF THE JEWS FROM SPAIN.

By permission of The Chairman and Council of the Jews' College, London.

The persecution suffered by the Jews of Spain under Isabella, the Catholic, at the instigation of the Inquisition, culminated in the edict of expulsion of 1492. Don Isaac Abrabanel, the Spanish statesman, was offered exclusion from the edict, but refused any exceptional favour which differentiated between him and the other Jews of Spain. The painting shows Abrabanel pleading before the Queen for the rescission of the edict, and the dramatic entry of the Grand Inquisitor, Thomas de Torquemada, holding a crucifix and exclaiming, "Judas sold his Master for thirty pieces of silver." Isabella had been hesitating, but this outburst sealed her determination on the expulsion.

Reuchlin's enthusiasm for the study of the Talmud induced him to maintain the cause of those who still regarded the Talmud as a vital Code. He dispelled the mediaeval notion that, contingently on the overthrow of the ancient Judæan State by Vespasian and Titus, the Jews were by right of conquest the bondmen of their successors, the Roman and German emperors. "The Jews," as Graetz summarizes Reuchlin's view, "were citizens of the Holy Roman Empire, and were entitled to its full privileges and protection."

While, then, the sixteenth century witnessed the start of new forces without, there were also at work regenerative agencies within the Jewish community. Before the century was three parts through, there was published the Code of Joseph Karo (1488-1575). This work, entitled "Shulhan Aruch," or "Table Prepared," became for three hundred years the rallying-point for the scattered Jewries of the world. It arrested moral degeneration at the hour when the Jews were thrown on their own inner resources. This Code had its faults. It emphasized ritualism, it perpetuated the obsolete. It gave new vitality to separative elements. Within the material Ghetto built by prejudice, the Jews had erected a cultural Ghetto designed for self-preservation. For its own age, however, the Code rendered conspicuous services. Like all the great Codes of Judaism, it sanctified the home and hallowed common pursuits. It gave a fresh expression to the Jewish *Weltanschauung*, or theory of life, a theory which identified life with religion in the sense that both must be based on righteousness in theory and practice, and it thereby made the Jews, in the epoch of their lowest position in the view and polity of European governments, independent of those governments and all their vagaries. In the nineteenth century liberal Judaism broke with the ritualism of the Code, for the good of the new movement in the Synagogue. The Code, however, continues to operate, for good also, with thousands of conservative Jews, who still find their road to idealism along the old paths. The sixteenth century was, in other respects, not without its brighter incidents for the Jews. In Turkey, Joseph Nassi found such favour with Sultan Soliman that he raised the Jew to the dignity of Duke of Naxos. The duke's influence seems to have been extraordinary, and the same is true of his activity in foreign politics.

Another important event of the same century was the settlement of fugitive Marranos in Holland. The Marranos were Jews, who in Spain and Portugal had been compelled to assume the cloak of Catholicism to escape the attentions of the Inquisition. The Netherlands were the scene of a gallant struggle for independence against Spain, and the Portuguese Jews felt drawn to the



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton]

SABBATAI ZEBI PROCLAIMS HIMSELF MESSIAH.

Sabbatai Zebi, born in Smyrna of Spanish ancestry, proclaimed himself Messiah in 1648. His claims aroused widespread excitement and were accepted by many Jews. In 1666 he was compelled to assent to Islam, and his followers were dispersed.

country where the spirit of freedom ruled. Amsterdam soon became the centre of Jewish revival. It was the Marranos, too, who won certain rights, or rather privileges, in Hamburg, and these Jews, returning to the Synagogue after a period of enforced separation, were in several localities pioneers, forming the nucleus of new communities of Jews; among other places this occurred in London. About the middle of the following century Cromwell permitted Jews to reside in England, after an interval of three and a half centuries. This, as well as the first settlement of the Jews in New York, took place in 1655. It was from Holland that Menasseh ben Israel came to plead the Jewish cause before the English Protector; from Holland, where at the time Spinoza was working out his momentous thought and coming into conflict with the local Jewish authorities.

The name Spinoza seems to have been taken from Espinosa, a town in Leon; the family came origin-



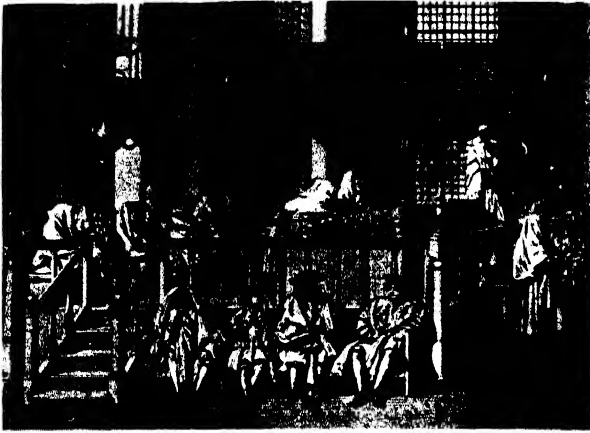
From the painting by Solomon A. Hart, R.A.]

[By permission of the Chairman and Council of the Jews' College, London.]

MANASSEH BEN ISRAEL PLEADING BEFORE CROMWELL.

The Whitehall Conference of divines, lawyers and merchants was convened at the instance of Oliver Cromwell in December, 1655, to consider whether it was lawful to readmit the Jews to England and, if it was lawful, the terms on which they should be admitted. The first question was quickly answered in the affirmative. The second led to much dissension, and the conference was dissolved by Cromwell at its fourth meeting without any decision being taken. Cromwell, however, acquiesced in the Jewish resettlement.

ally from Spain. Benedict Spinoza was born in Amsterdam, in 1632; he died at The Hague in 1677. Innate in him was the passion for truth. He was unyielding when his intellectual liberty was concerned. Such a man was bound to find established authority galling. His excommunication was inevitable; in 1656 the ban was pronounced, and he never joined any other religious communion. He worked best as a free agent. But his Jewish upbringing coloured his thought, and he derived from Jewish predecessors some elements at least of his ethics and logic. His breach with sectarian bonds was not detrimental to him; on the contrary, "it helped to make him a thinker of no particular sect and of no particular age; but for all men and for all times" (A. Wolf). On the other hand, Menasseh ben Israel sacrificed his whole life for his community. His father narrowly escaped from the Inquisition in Lisbon in 1605; like many another of similar experiences, he took the first opportunity to sail for Holland. Menasseh was an enthusiast rather than a thinker, but he was not wanting in diplomatic ability. He showed much skill in his management of the case for the Jews before



Sounding the Ram's Horn. On the "New Year," which falls on the first of Tishri, usually corresponding with a date in September, one of the most characteristic rites is the sounding of the shofar, or ram's horn.



Procession of the Palms in a Sephardic Synagogue. The worshippers bear in their hands palm branches entwined with myrtles and willows. They also carry citrons. The bearers of the palms walk in procession round the Synagogue.



Removal of Leaven. On the evening previous to the Passover, the houses are thoroughly cleansed of all leaven. During the week of the festival, which commemorates the Exodus, only unleavened bread (called matzah) is eaten.



The Day of Atonement is observed as a strict fast for more than twenty-four hours, beginning before sunset on the ninth and terminating after sunset on the tenth of Tishri. The Synagogue service lasts all day.



In the Tabernacle. During the autumn Feast of Tabernacles, booths are constructed in the open air. The roof is formed of boughs of trees and other greenery. Meals are served in these temporary abodes.



Purim is the festival which commemorates the incidents narrated in the Book of Esther. In the evening and on the following morning the Scroll of Esther is read in the Synagogues.



Sir Moses Montefiore (1784-1885), philanthropist, was instrumental in removing Jewish disabilities in the Orient.



Baron Nathan Rothschild, financier, established a bank in London in 1798, which rapidly became of European importance.



Heinrich Heine (1797-1856), poet, wit and satirist, inspired with the love of justice.



Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield (1804-1881), statesman and novelist, made England half-owner of the Suez Canal.

Cromwell's Commission, and the works which he published in England were models of restrained pleading.

Thus there were great figures in the Jewries of the seventeenth century. But it was not a time of steady advance. Both within the community and without there were set-backs. Without, the most unpleasant reminder was given that the age even of massacre was by no means over. For a considerable period Poland had been a refuge for the Jews when Germany, Austria and Hungary made those lands uninhabitable for the sons of Israel. Under Casimir IV., in the fifteenth century, the Jews of Poland had a happier lot than befell their brethren in any other European country. The numerical expansion of the Jewish population of modern Russia goes back to the fifteenth century. In Poland the Jews almost constituted an autonomous state. The Synod of the Four Countries, as it was termed, met twice a year, and exercised executive functions. The result was a splendid revival of Talmudic learning, as well as a capable administration of Jewish affairs. But after a more or less uninterrupted continuance of favour, the Jews of Poland were suddenly made the victims of a fierce persecution. In 1648 came the Cossack inroads under Bogdan Chmielnicki. He had personal wrongs to avenge, as Graetz explains, and when his victorious troops poured eastward from the Dnieper, the Jews were everywhere plundered and massacred. The effects of that disastrous time are still felt. From Chmielnicki's raids dates the attitude of animosity to the Jews which still dictates much of Russian internal policy.

Within the Jewish communities, moreover, a cause of disintegration appeared on the scene in the person of Sabbatai Zebi (1626-1676). He produced a condition of excitement which far transcended the limits of the Synagogue. The English Records of the time are full of letters from ambassadors and travellers, who report with eager interest the progress of Sab-



MOSES MENDELSSOHN.

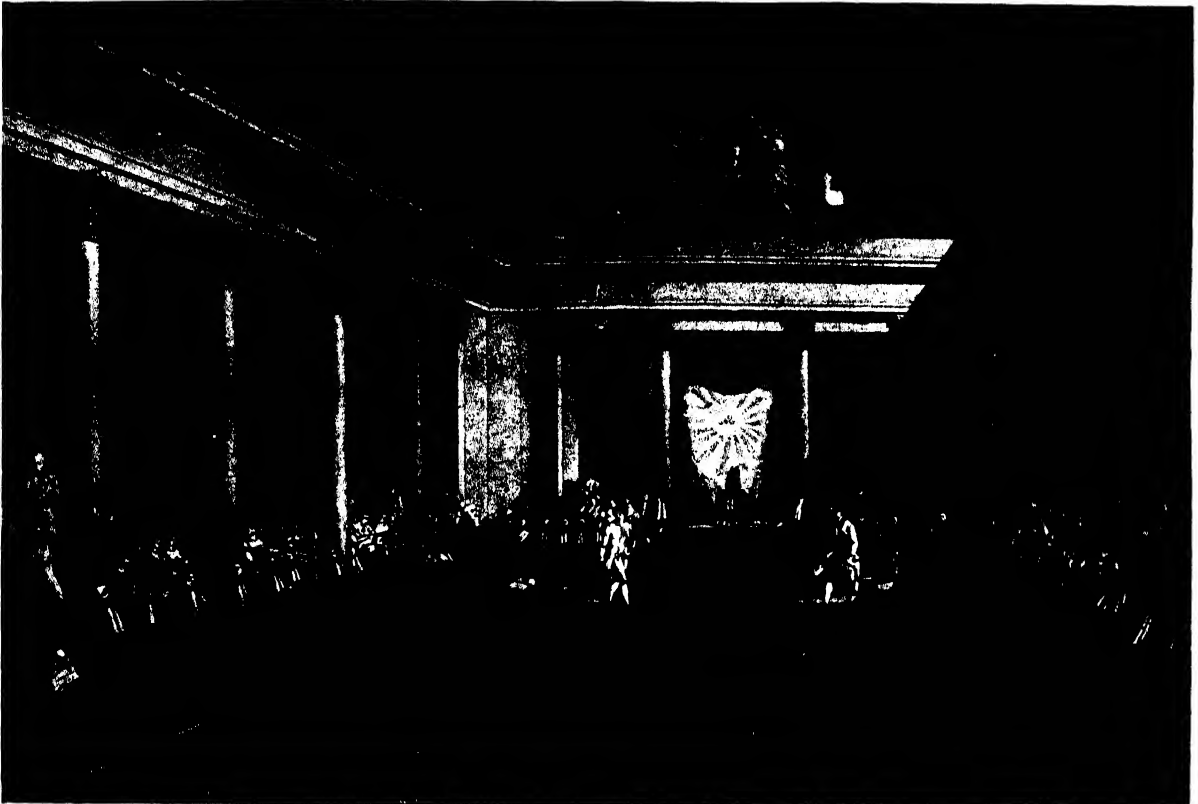
Moses Mendelssohn (1729-1786), philosopher, the friend of Lessing, taught the world to admit the Jew, and the Jew to live in the world. Felix Mendelssohn, the musician, was his grandson.

batai. Born in Smyrna, of Spanish ancestry, Sabbatai assumed the rôle of Jewish Messiah. His claims electrified the Jewries of the world, and the sensations of the time reached almost incredible heights. The down-trodden Jews were to be saved at last. The redeemer had appeared, to lead Israel home to the sacred soil where once the Patriarchs, Prophets and Rabbis had created Judaism. Naturally these hopes were not universally shared. The pretensions of Sabbatai met with strong opposition, which continued to divide the Synagogue long after Sabbatai's failure.

History repeatedly enforces the lesson that though

external causes affect the growth and decay of peoples, the seeds of life and death germinate within. In a large sense, Jewish emancipation was due to the action of the newer spirit which culminated in the French Revolution. But unless the Jews had been prepared from within to profit by that new spirit, it might have left them as they were. With the time comes the man, is another of the common-places of history. Long before the French Revolution the man had arrived. This man was Mendelssohn.

Moses, son of Mendel (whence the family name Mendelssohn), was born in Dessau in 1729, and died in Berlin in 1786. Puny in physique, but giant-like in mind, he was destined to inaugurate a new era in the fortunes of the Jewish people. The coincidence of his personal name was afterwards remarked on. He was the third Moses, and like Moses the Lawgiver and Moses Maimonides, stood at the beginning



THE SANHEDRIN CONVENED BY NAPOLEON, 1807.

The Jewish High Court was convened by Napoleon in 1807 to give legal sanction to certain principles of Jewish law and custom. It was, like the old Sanhedrin of Jerusalem, composed of seventy-one members. Two-thirds of the members were Rabbis and one-third laymen.

of a fresh epoch. The mediæval Moses had shown his brethren how to harmonize their Judaism with Greek philosophy ; the eighteenth-century bearer of the name taught the Jews how to adapt themselves to civil emancipation without forsaking their religion. Famous in the history of music as the grandfather of Felix Mendelssohn, Moses attained to note for his own sake also. Born at a time when the Jews, though no longer pillaged and massacred, were none the less subject to oppression, he won his way to the forefront of the distinguished Prussian society which gathered round Frederick the Great. A curious fact told by Sebastian Hensel will illustrate the kind of petty annoyance to which the Jews were liable.

“ Under Frederick the Great, every Jew had to purchase, on the occasion of his marriage, a certain amount of china from the newly-established royal china factory in Berlin, and that not according to his own choice, but that of the manager of the factory, who made use of the opportunity to get rid of things otherwise unsaleable. Thus Moses Mendelssohn, a man even then generally known and honoured,

became possessed of twenty life-like china apes, some of which are still preserved in the family." As a boy, Moses betook himself to Berlin, where he lived in a garret and endured years of privation. But he persevered in his studies, and absorbed all the culture which the age could impart. His brilliant works on philosophy acquired for him the nickname of the Berlin Socrates; his essays on the relation between Church and State demonstrated that civic virtues and not theological opinions constituted the test of the good citizen.

Mendelssohn was much encouraged by his friendship with Lessing, who immortalized the Jew by making him the hero of his drama, *Nathan the Wise*. Mendelssohn's influence was instantaneous and enduring. He taught the world to admit the Jew, and the Jew to live in the world. After his time we find the Jews everywhere participating in the national affairs of the peoples amid whom they lived,

and of which they claimed to form part.

The change wrought by Mendelssohn was emphasized by the spirit of the French Revolution. Mirabeau, who championed the Jewish cause in France, was a warm admirer of Mendelssohn. "If," said Mirabeau, "you wish the Jews to become better men and useful citizens, then banish every humiliating distinction; open to them every avenue of gaining a livelihood; instead of forbidding them agriculture, handicrafts, and the mechanical arts, encourage them to devote themselves to these occupations." How rapidly the world has moved becomes apparent when it is recalled that such sentiments were in 1787 novel and even daring. On the



From the painting]

[By J. Israels.

THE JEWISH WEDDING.

Jewish weddings are mostly celebrated under a bower or canopy. Sometimes the bridal couple are covered with a fringed mantle. The ring is placed on the index finger of the right hand, but it is subsequently transferred to the usual finger of the left hand.

On the eve of the Revolution the Jewish question again came to the front. In 1791 the French Jews received full recognition.

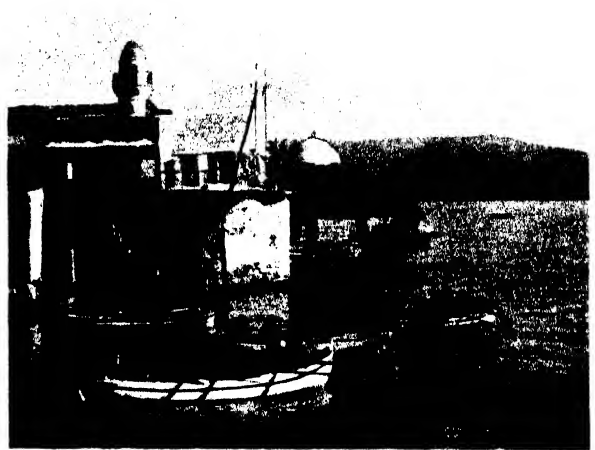
Ten years before, in 1781, the Austrian Emperor, Joseph II., had thrown open the universities to the Jews, and had proclaimed the Jews fellow-men. These events were forerunners of similar incidents in other states. Not without struggle (in England the Jews did not win full Parliamentary emancipation till 1858), yet without doubt as to the end, the Jews gained admission to citizenship in every important country but Russia.

Since they won these rights, the Jews have used them in the whole-hearted service of the state, so that it might be said of other countries as Mr. Balfour said of England in 1908: "Every one of the fifty years which have elapsed since 1858 has given fresh proof—if fresh proof were needed—of the patriotism, the generosity, and the public spirit of the great community who in that year were too tardily admitted to the full rights of citizenship."

The Jews



TOMB OF RACHAEL, BETHLEHEM.



THE SEA OF GALILEE.

As already indicated, Russia was not disposed to fall into stride with the rest of Europe. There were moments, as in the reign of Alexander I. (1804) and of Alexander II. (c. 1860), when better times seemed



THE JORDAN.



MOUNT SINAI.

in store for the Hebrew subjects of the Czars. But reaction set in, and with 1881 began a new era of pogroms. Penned in the Pale of Settlement, afflicted by organized popular riots, the Jews of Russia



Photos by

TOWER OF DAVID, JERUSALEM.



[The American Colony, Jerusalem.]

ROMAN REMAINS, SAMARIA.

were reduced to sore straits. A vast emigration ensued, partly to newly-formed agricultural colonies in various parts of the world, but especially to the United States of America, where the Jewish population is said now to exceed two millions. The American Jews have long enjoyed full rights of citizenship, and have borne a great part in the national life.

In another direction than that exhibited by Russia, hostility broke out against the emancipated Jews. Russia denied emancipation; in certain continental states Anti-Semitism threatened the emancipated. One of the results of this was the growth of the Zionistic movement among a certain section



From the painting]

[By William Rothenstein.

CARRYING THE LAW.

The reading of a passage from the Scroll of the Pentateuch has always been an important part of the Synagogue service on Sabbaths, festivals, and on Mondays and Thursdays. The congregation stand while the Scroll, enwrapped in a mantle and ornamented with bells, is carried from the Ark to the reading-desk.

of Jews. At first, in 1897, under the inspiration of Theodor Herzl, the movement was political; it has since tended to become cultural. The movement is too young for its effects to be judged, but it must be pointed out that while Herzl's inspiration has produced a quickening of the Jewish spirit, very large and influential bodies of Jews stand resolutely outside the Zionistic circle, and refuse to recognize in a revival of Jewish nationality in Palestine the destined goal of the Jewish people. Israel, they hold, is no longer a nation, but a religious community. Whichever view is taken, however, all Jews rejoice in sharing the nationality of the various states of which they are loyal and patriotic citizens, and to the welfare and uplifting of which they are devoted.

DATES OF ROMAN HISTORY

(To 61 B.C.)

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	B.C.	
Monarchy.	753	xi. Kal. Mai. The foundation of Rome. 753-673. Senate and Equites formed. 673-641. Alba-Longa destroyed. 641-616. Capture of Ostia. 616-578. Tarquinius Priscus. 600. Traditional date for foundation of Massilia (Marseilles). 583. The earliest Italo-Greek coins.
	578-534	Servius Tullius. Early walls and Agger of Rome built. Organization of Centuria and of local tribes created.
	550	Earliest discovered Etruscan coinage, on Greek basis. 537. Occupation of Corsica by the Etruscans after sea fight between them and the Phocian settlers. 534-510. Tarquinius Superbus. Etruscans defeated at Cumae by Aristodemus. 511. Sybaris destroyed. 510. Ejection of the Tarquins.
From foundation of Republic to the Decemvirate.	509	Kal. Ian. Appointment of the first Consuls. First Treaty with Carthage (Polybius). Temple of Jupiter on the Capitoline Hill dedicated. 504. The Claudii migrate to Rome. 501. First Dictator and Magister Equitum. c. 500. Conquest of Sardinia by the Carthaginians. 497. Battle of Lake Regillus. 494. Creation of the Tribunate of the Plebeians. Latin colonies among the Volsci founded.
	493	Treaty of Sp. Cassius with the Latins. 492. Lex Icilia as to the rights of Tribunes. Latin colonies established at Norba and Signa. 485. Sp. Cassius condemned. 474. Truce with the Veii. Etruscans defeated at Cumae by Hiero. 471. Lex Publilia Volronis.
	460	The Sabine Appius Herdonius captures the Capitol. 457. Plebeian Tribunes raised to 10.
	451	All the magistrates superseded by the "Decemviri Legibus Scribendis" and publish the 10 tables of laws, which are accepted by the Comitia Centuriata.
	450	The second body of Decemviri including plebeians. They decline to abdicate at the end of the year and publish two additional tables. 449. Trial of Verginia. Decemvirs abdicate and are exiled. Magistrates renewed. 448. Lex Trebonia. 447. The Tarantines signally defeated by the Lapages. 445. Institution of the "tribuni militares consulari potestate" to replace Consuls in certain years, according to Senate's decision plebeians being eligible.
	443	Creation of a Censorship. Patricians only eligible. Foundation of Latin colony at Ardea.
	432	First law to hinder electoral malpractice. 431. First Temple of Apollo.
	424	The Samnites take Capua from the Etruscans. 420. Cumae taken by the Samnites.
	415	Three Etruscan ships bring help to the Athenians at Syracuse. 410. Carthaginians in Sicily.
	409	A plebeian made Quæstor. 406. The soldiers receive pay for the first time.
	405-396	The war with Veii. Introduction of the "equites equo privato." 403. Tax on bachelors imposed by Camillus. 398. Embassy sent to Delphi. 396. Capture of Veii. 394. Triumph of Camillus. 392. Temple of Juno Regina built on the Aventine Hill. 391. Camillus exiled, and 390. his recall. His victory over the Gauls known to Aristotle. 389 or 387. The local tribes increased to 25. Four new ones being created in southern Etruria. 385. Latin colony founded at Satricum. 380. Condemnation of M. Manlius. 383-373. Several new Latin colonies founded. 375. Temple of Juno Lucina established in the Esquiline. 368. The first plebeian Magister Equitum. Laws of Licinius and Sextius passed.
	367	L. Sextius the first plebeian Consul. The Gauls at Alba. 365. Death of Camillus.
	361	The Gauls with the Latins aiding them 3 miles from Rome. In the following year the Gauls close to Rome and fighting ensues. 358. Renewal of treaty with the Latins. Gauls defeated.
	356	C. Marcus Rutilius refused a triumph. 354. Alliance with the Samnites.
	352	Great financial crisis. 351. First plebeian Censor. 350. Gauls on the Alban mount. 349. Gauls and Latins defeated. Greek vessels raid Italian coast. 348. Treaty with Carthage (mentioned by Diodorus as the earliest). 343-341. First Samnite War in support of the Campanians. 342. Military mutiny. 340. Treaty with the Samnites.
Wars with the Latins and Samnites.	340	War with the Latins. 338. Dissolution of the Latin league. 337. First plebeian Praetor. 335. A rising of slaves. 332. The local tribes raised to 29. 329-328. More Latin colonies founded.
	327-304	Second Samnite War. Romanus league with the Lucanians. 327. Plebeian Dictator. Neapolis besieged by the Romans. 326. Law in regard to debt made less rigorous. 322. Samnites propose peace, which is refused by Rome. 321. Defeat at the "Furculæ Caudinæ." 320. Luceria captured by the Samnites, and 319, retaken by the Romans. 318. Local tribes increased to 31. 313. More Latin colonies founded. 312. Construction of the Via Appia between Rome and Capua.
	311	War with the Etruscans. 310. Etruscan cities make peace after the battle at Lake Vadimo. Roman-Engage in a naval expedition, first recorded. 308. War with Umbrians and peace with remaining Etruscan cities. 307. Expedition of a Roman squadron to Corsica. 306. New treaty with Carthage.
	302	Gaius Fabius paints the Temple of Salus on the Capitol. 301. Romans at war with the Marsi and the Etruscans. 298-290. Third Samnite War. 296. Worship of Pudicitia Plebeia instituted. Statue of a she-wolf with the twins set up on the Capitol. 295. Temples of Jupiter Victor and of Venus erected.
Period between the end of the Samnite Wars and the First Punic War.	294	The chief Etruscan towns surrender. More temples built in Rome. 293. Insurrection of the Falerii.
	290	Treaty with Samnites. Revolt and surrender of Sabines. 287. Lex Hortensia. Financial crisis. 286. Lex Maenia. 282. War with the Boii. Roman fleet attacked by the Tarentines. 281. War with Tarentum and Pyrrhus. 283. Battle of Hæraclæa. 279. Syracuse goes over to Pyrrhus. Battle of Asculum. New treaty with Carthage. 275. Hiero becomes supreme at Syracuse. Battle of Beneventum. Pyrrhus leaves for Greece. 272. Tarentines surrender. Also other Italian peoples in the south of Italy. Death of Pyrrhus. 271. Regium taken from the Campanians who had deserted from Roman army. 270-266. War with the Umbrians, Picentes and Salluntini their surrender. Brundisium captured. ROME SUPREME IN ITALY. 268. Silver coinage centralized at Rome. First recorded divorce.
First Punic War.	264	The war begins with the capture of Messina. Agathocles occupies the city with his Mamertines (Italian mercenaries), the Carthaginians having surrendered to them. Gladiators introduced from Etruria make their first exhibition in Rome. 263. Hiero of Syracuse joins Romans and other cities of Sicily are won over. 260. Naval victory at Mylæ the first naval triumph.
	259	The Romans successful in Corsica and Sardinia. 260-258. Three more temples erected in Rome.
	256	Regulus leads expedition into Africa. 255. He is defeated by the Carthaginians under Xanthippus. Roman fleet destroyed by storm at Pachynus. 254. Panormus taken. 253. Second Roman fleet destroyed by storm. 252. Tib. Cornucanius becomes the first plebeian pontifex maximus. Refusal of the equites to work with the "gregarii milites" in the trenches.
	250	Victory at Panormus. 249. Fleet under P. Claudius defeated at Drepanum. Roman transports wrecked by storm. Hamilear Barca in Sicily. 247. Birth of Hannibal.
	247-245	Roman citizen colonies founded at Aesinum and Fregene. 244. Hamilear at Eryx.
	242	Lutatius Catulus wins naval victory at "Insulae Aegates." Carthaginians sue for peace.
	241	Peace arranged with Carthage. The portions of Sicily acquired by Rome constitute first Roman province. Two more Roman tribes created, the full number of 35 being completed.
The interim between the First and Second Punic Wars.	240	War of Carthaginian mercenaries commences. 239. Corsica and Sardinia taken over by the Romans.
	238	Gauls of northern Italy and the Ligurians at war with Rome. 237. Hamilear makes conquests in Spain. 235. First performance of dramas of Naevius. 234. Birth of Cato. 231. The Corsi surrender after a seven years' struggle. First recorded triumph of a Roman general on the "Mons Albanus." Export of silver to the Celts proscribed. 230. Expedition against Illyrian pirates. 229. Hamilear is succeeded by Hasdrubal in Spain. 228. Illyria at peace. Envoys from Rome received with distinction in Greece.
	227	Praetors raised to 4. Two of them to govern the two provinces of Sicily (Roman portion) and Sardinia with Corsica. 226. Rome threatened by extensive combination of Gauls in Northern Italy with Transalpine allies. 225. Gauls heavily defeated near Pisa. 224. The Boii surrender. 223. Roman army under C. Flaminius crosses the Po for first time and inflicts defeat upon Insubres. 222. Surrender of Insubres.
	221	Assassination of Hasdrubal. He is succeeded by Hannibal. Romans gain victory over the Histri. C. Flaminius Censor. 220. The Via Flaminia constructed to Ariminum (Rimini). Building of the Flaminian circus. 219. Second war with Illyria. Saguntum captured by Hannibal. Passing of the Lex Claudia.

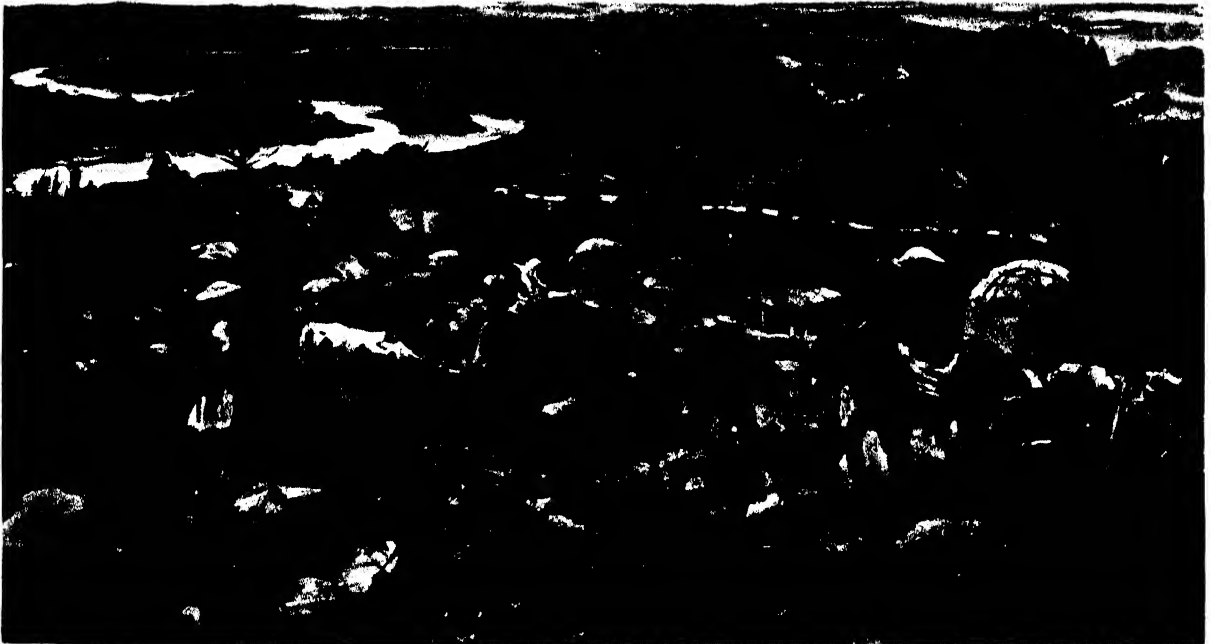
DATES OF ROMAN HISTORY—continued

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Second Punic War.	B.C. 218	Hannibal leaves Spain on his march to Italy. P. Cornelius Scipio fails to reach the Rhône in time to stop him; returns to Italy and is defeated by the Carthaginians on the Ticinus; joined by Tl. Sempronius Longus; both defeated at the Trebia. Defeat of C. Flaminius at Lake Trasimene. The two Scipiones successful in Spain. 216. Many Italians join Hannibal. Consuls C. T. Varro and L. Aemilius Paulus defeated at Cannae. Death of Hiero. Hannibal spends winter at Capua. 215. Hannibal and Philip of Macedon arrange a treaty. 214. Marcellus besieges Syracuse. More successes of the Scipiones in Spain. 212
	212	Capture of Tarentum by Hannibal. Syracuse stormed by the Romans. The Scipio brothers defeated and slain. 211. The Romans take Capua.
	210	Carthaginians evacuate Sicily. P. Cornelius Scipio captures Nova Carthago. 209. Hasdrubal, son of Hannibal, defeated at Baecula. Declaration of 12 out of 30 Latin colonies to the effect that they are unable to meet demands of the Roman government. 208. Hannibal entraps and kills Marcellus and his colleague. 207. Defeat of Hasdrubal at the Metaurus. Successes in Spain and Greece.
	206	Scipio returns to Rome. 205. He is made Consul and allowed to go to Africa. Mago (Hannibal's brother) takes Genna. 204. Scipio continues in Africa. Cult of the Magna Mater established.
	203	Recall of Hannibal to Africa. Defeat and death of Mago in Gaul. 202. Battle of Zama. 201. Peace and triumph of Scipio. Hannibal continues war in northern Italy.
Interval between Second and Third Punic Wars.	200	Second Macedonian War. Gauls rebel. 199. Insubres inflict defeat on Romans.
	198	Rome makes alliance with the Achaean league, Flaminius having driven Philip of Macedon into Thessaly. 197. Battle of Cynoscephalae. Romans victorious. 196. Peace arranged with Philip. "Freedom of Greece" proclaimed by Flaminius at the Isthmian games. Extensive rising of slaves.
	195	War with Nabis the Spartan despot. Cato in Spain. Hannibal flees from Carthage. 194. Scipio Africanus Consul for the second time. Roman forces leave Greece.
	193-191	Continuation of the war with the Gauls and Ligurians. 193. Boii defeated. More Latin colonies founded. Great victory by L. Cornelius Scipio, brother of Africanus, gained over Antiochus at Magnesia.
	190	Peace arranged with Antiochus. End of Syrian War. 188. Disaster to Cn. Manlius in marching through Thrace. 187. The brothers Scipio tried for malversation. 186. The "Bacchanalian Conspiracy" followed by drastic punishments. 185 or 184. Death of Scipio Africanus. 184. Death of Hannibal. Censorship of Cato. 181. Senate decrees as a condition of a triumph the killing of 5,000 enemies.
	175	Tl. Gracchus conquers the Sardi. 174. The State takes over the expense of stage plays. 173. Numerous embassies between Greece and Rome at this period.
Third Macedonian War to Third Punic War.	171	War begins with Persens of Macedon, Romans having little success in the first three campaigns.
	168	The battle of Pydna won by Consul L. Aemilius Paulus. Allies of Persens defeated.
	157	Division of Macedonia into four pretectorates. Polybius brought to Rome among the 1,000 Achaean prisoners. 164. Death of Persens at Alba. Rhodes reconciled with Rome. 163. Ptolemy Philometor applies to Rome for help after his ejection from Egypt. Expulsion from Rome of Greek philosophers and rhetoricians. Senate recognizes independence of Jews.
Period between the Third Punic War and the Age of Gracchi.	156	Rome at war in Dalmatia. 154. A Roman army operates west of the Alps for the second time, the Ligurians having attacked Massilia. 153. Defeat of Romans by the Celtiberi.
	150	War declared against Carthage. Utica surrendered. 149-141. Success of the Lucitanians under Viriathus. Death of Cato. Establishment of the first "quaestio perpetua."
	149	Building of the Via Postumia, Verona to Genua. 147. Carthage besieged. 146. Carthage destroyed. Roman province established in Northern Africa. Minnius destroys Corinth. 142. Scipio travels to the East. Consulship of Fabius Maximus Servilianus. 140. Fabius Maximus makes peace with Viriathus. O. Servilius, brother of Fabius, breaks the peace and causes Viriathus to be assassinated.
	139	Slaves rise in Sicily. The first of the Roman ballot laws passed. 138. Numantines defeat Romans. 137. Peace made with the Numantines by C. Hostilius Mancinus which the Senate repudiates.
	135	Extensive rising of slaves in Sicily. Siege of Numantia by Scipio.
The Age of the Gracchi.	133	Tl. Gracchus is Tribune. Numantia captured. 132. Triumph of Scipio Aemilianus. Death of Scipio Nasica in Asia. The Lusitani and Gallaci conquered by D. Brutus.
	131	Suppression of slave rising in Sicily. For the first time two plebeian Censors in office together. 129. Agrarian law disputes. 126. Law to expel foreigners from Rome.
	124	Foundation of Aquae Sextiae (Aix-en-Provence) in Gaul. C. Gracchus elected Tribune. 123. He brings forward his first series of laws. 122. C. Gracchus introduces the "Lex Iudiciaria" and the "Lex D. Provinciarum" and other laws. Goes to Carthage to found citizen colony. Projects other colonies.
	121	The re-founding of Carthage attacked by L. Opimius. Massacre of C. Gracchus, M. Fulvius Flaccus, and many of their followers. Citizens tried and executed by order of the Senate. 120. L. Opimius accused of treason and is acquitted. 119. Carbo, who had defended Opimius, commits suicide. 118. Narbo Martius (Narbonne) founded. Agrarian law. 115. Appointment of M. Aemilius Scaurus to the position of "Princeps Senatus." Held office until 89 B.C. 114. C. Percius Cato the Consul heavily defeated in Thrace by the Scordisci. 113. The Cimbrri defeat Romans at Norcia. 112. Jugurtha murders Adherbal. War declared against him. 111. Jugurtha summoned to Rome but is obliged to flee from the city and the war recommences. 110. Court established to try all who had had corrupt dealings with Jugurtha, many condemned.
	109	War in Africa continued. Victory over the Cimbrri in Gaul. The Via Aemilia built in Liguria. 108. The Cimbrri inflict a defeat on Scaurus. 107. Marius Consul for the first time. Takes command in Numidia. 106. Capture of Tolosa by Servilius. Cicero born. 105. Two Roman armies destroyed by the Cimbrri. 104. 2nd Consulship of Marius. 103. 3rd Consulship of Marius. Slaves again rise in Sicily—the revolt continuing until 99. 102. 4th Consulship of Marius. He wipes out the Teutones and Ambrones at Aquae Sextiae. Birth of C. Julius Caesar. 101. 5th Consulship of Marius. Famous victory over the Cimbrri near Vercellae. 100. 6th Consulship of Marius. L. Apuleius Saturninus and his conspirators lose their lives through the operation of the "Senatus consultum ultimum" at the order of Marius.
	99	Birth of Lucretius. 97. Human sacrifice said to have been forbidden at Rome.
	96	Cyrene handed over to Rome by its king. The Senate however grants the freedom of the cities of the country. 95. Passing of the law to expel from Rome the socii who had no right to settle there. This becomes chief cause of the social war. 91. Laws of M. Livius Drusus quashed by the Senate. His sudden death. The Italians having failed to gain the franchise bring about the social war. Crassus the orator dies. 90. The social war continues. 89. Extension of the franchise granted. Pasiteles, the Greek sculptor, comes to Rome at this period.
	88	The war against Mithradates attributed to Sulla who is Consul. Confusion in Rome. Mithradates overruns Asia and orders a general massacre of Romans.
	87	Revolutionary conduct in Rome of L. Cornelius Cinna. He is supported by Marius. They capture the city. Distinguished men massacred. Birth of Catullus and of Sallust.
	86	Marius Consul for the 7th time—Cinna for the 2nd. Death of Marius. L. Valerius Flaccus takes his place.
Sulla and the Marian party.	85	Cinna Consul for the 3rd time. Flaccus killed by his soldiers. The Romans capture Pergamum and other towns from Mithradates. 84. Cinna Consul for the 4th time. He is murdered by his soldiers. Carbo sole Consul. Peace arranged with Mithradates. 83. Marians collect forces to attack Sulla who arrives in Italy early in the year. 82. The younger Marius Consul with Carbo. Marius shut up in Praeneste after defeat by Sulla. Marius commits suicide. 81. Triumph of Sulla. End of the Second Mithradatic War. 79. Sulla resigns authority. 78. Death of Sulla. Defeat of Metellus by Sertorius. 76. Cn. Pompeius overcomes and kills M. Brutus in Cisalpine Gaul; and is sent to Spain with Metellus.
	73	Mithradates defeated at Cyzicus. A stern destroys his fleet. War between gladiators and slaves begins under Spartacus. 72. Spartacus successful. 71. He is destroyed near Regium with the majority of his supporters. Triumph of Pompeius. 70. Cn. Pompeius Consul for the first time with M. Licinius Crassus. Birth of Virgil. 68. Caesar becomes quaestor in Spain. Pirates subdued by Pompeius.
	66	Roman successes against Mithradates. 65. He becomes a fugitive. Birth of Horace. 63. Cicero Consul. Birth of the future Emperor Augustus.
	62	Catiline's defeat and death. Praetorship of Caesar. 61. Return of Cn. Pompeius. His triumph.

CHAPTER XI

THE ROMANS. By PROFESSOR J. S. REID

WHEN the Romans became sufficiently civilized to be curious about their own earliest history, its records had been in the main irrecoverably lost. Only a few traces in their religious and political practices testified to their remotest past, and even these were difficult of interpretation. The race from which the Romans sprang, a branch of the great Indo-European family, was singularly lacking in the imaginative faculty, and it had no genius for illuminating the dark background of distant time with the alluring light of legend. What the Romans could not do for themselves, they were enabled to do with the



Painted specially for this work]

[By Allan Stewart,

PRIMITIVE ETRUSCAN SETTLEMENT.

In very early times we find the Etruscans established on the northern bank of the Tiber. The magnificent remains of their cities testify to the splendour of their civilization in its prime. The picture, which shows them in an early state of development, gives us also a view of the "seven hills" on which Rome was afterwards built.

aid of the Greeks, who embroidered the prehistoric age of Italy by means of elaborate and conflicting speculations. The Hellenes had been pushing towards the setting sun for centuries, and had been struggling with Etruscans and Phoenicians for the fruits of trade in the western Mediterranean. They had made numerous settlements on the coasts of Italy and Sicily, and a few even in Spain and Africa and on the southern shores of the land that afterwards came to be known as Gaul. Wherever they established themselves, their influence on the natives was immense, and even where they did not settle, their travellers and merchants scattered the seeds of their civilization. The Greek was early to be found everywhere in the West, especially in the seaports. In the greatest period of Athenian art, some of its exponents were doing fine work in Carthage. The splendid Greek city of Massilia (Marseilles) affected deeply the tribes of the interior. Down to a late date Celtic inscriptions were written in the Greek alphabet. As to Italy, it seemed at one time as though the whole peninsula were destined to become a Hellenic land. Had there not been in the Greek nature an incapacity for united action, that end might



By permission of

[The British Museum,

AN ETRUSCAN CHARIOT.

A finely-preserved example of a chariot, probably of the sixth century B.C.

For ages before it could be said that a city of Rome existed, its site, and the near districts in Latium, were inhabited. Archaeologists have recently discovered a prehistoric burying-place in the Forum; and memorials of the dead belonging to the same period of culture are found in Latium. The ashes were sometimes enshrined in receptacles fashioned to resemble the dwellings in which the deceased had lived.

A glance at the surroundings of Rome, as they may be surveyed, for instance, from the Palatine hill, is enough to show that, at an early period, her people could only preserve themselves against external foes by incessant effort. That so small a community should have ended by subjecting to itself the whole area of ancient civilization, and should after conquest have civilized vast regions beyond that area, is the greatest wonder that history has to show. Danger from without led of necessity to a rigorous organization at home, and this organization contained within it the germ of empire. The subjugation of Italy was the hardest task that the Romans ever accomplished. After that they ran what was comparatively an easy course of victory. They welded the many races of Italy together so as to form a great conquering nation, one in sentiment, and for many generations the dominant element in their empire, with privileges superior to those of the subject peoples outside.

The ethnology of ancient Italy still lies in obscurity. The subject was a playground for the speculative and unmethodical scholars of the Graeco-Roman world, and their modern successors have wasted much ingenuity in trying to extract sound conclusions from the incongruous material transmitted by the ancients. Nor can it be said that the archaeological researches of recent times have let much light in upon the darkness. We know of a number of races or tribes who spoke dialects akin to that of Rome, and may be grouped as "Italic." The Latin tongue, the tongue of the Romans themselves, was that

well have been attained. As it is, the western half of the ancient world, as well as the eastern, though in a less degree, is full of testimonies to the penetrating force of the Greek genius.

The memorials, faint and few as they are, of the primitive age of Rome, enable us to see her as a small city, possessed of a territory about six miles square. The site was swampy and unhealthy, and the earliest public works were those of drainage. Rome's "seven hills" (a somewhat elastic phrase) enabled her to withstand a raid of foes from the mountains on the other side of the Campagna. The Tiber, with a fortress on the opposite bank (the Janiculum), was her defence against enemies to the north. Her distance from the sea, about fourteen miles, made piratical descents difficult. This was a paramount consideration in the remote age. Many of the most famous ancient cities had a similar situation. The occupation of Ostia, by the mouth of the Tiber, at an early date, increased the security.



Photo by

[Mansell & Co.]

AN ETRUSCAN WARRIOR.

This bronze statuette of an armed man dates from the archaic Etruscan period. The cheek-pieces of the helmet are shown turned up.



Painted specially for this work

A ROMAN BATTLE WITH THE VOLSCIANS.

[By J. H. Yellin.]

The Latin language, that of the Romans themselves, was the speech of a race whose earliest communities dwelt round the Alban hills, and of which the Romans were a frontier post. To the south and south-east lived the Volscians and Aequians, with whom the Romans waged long wars. A typical Roman custom, at once daring and crafty, is here illustrated. The standard was hurled into the midst of the enemy, and each soldier made strenuous efforts to achieve the honour of recovering it, thus greatly increasing the force of their united charge.



Painted specially for this work

DRAINING THE SITE OF ROME.

[By P. H. Jowett.]

Our earliest memorials show us Rome as a small city possessing a territory of about six square miles. Her position was well chosen, as the "seven hills" enabled her to withstand raids from over the Campagna, the Tiber was her defence to the north, and her distance of fourteen miles from the sea made piratical descents difficult. The site was swampy and unhealthy, and the earliest public works were those of drainage.

of a people whose earliest communities clustered round the slopes of the Alban hills. Rome must have been a frontier post of this race. To the south and south-east were Volscians and Aequians, with whom Rome and the Latins waged long wars, aided by the Hernicans, whose abodes were interposed between those of the Aequians and Volscians. Middle Italy was occupied by a number of Italic peoples whose language diverged from Latin more widely than the speech of the races near to Latium. The greatest middle Italian power was that of the Samnites, the most redoubtable enemies ever encountered by Rome, whose dialect was what is called "Oscan." Southernmost Italy and the western coast from Cumae southwards was to a large extent occupied by Greeks, who also had scattered ports along the Adriatic coast, from Tarentum northwards. The extraordinary prosperity of the Greek cities of southern Italy during several centuries caused the name of "Great Greece" to be given to the land. They had to maintain a continual struggle with Lucanians and Bruttians, offshoots of the Samnite nation, and with the Messapians or Iapygians of Apulia, whose speech was Italic, but differed from Oscan.

Returning to the Tiber, we find the mysterious Etruscans established in early days on its northern bank. They have no traceable affinity either with the Greek or the Italic stock. Their origin is still a riddle. They were late comers into Italy; perhaps they did not arrive before the end of the ninth century B.C. Their power grew rapidly, but as rapidly declined. They once dominated a great part of northern Italy, and also Campania, and were powerful on the sea; but decay set in with the fourth century. Their centre was in what we still call Tuscany, from their name "Tusci," a variant of "Etrusci." The magnificent remains of their cities testify at once to the splendour and to the peculiarity of their civilization. They borrowed much from the Greeks and formed one of the chief channels by which Greek culture reached the Italic peoples. Between them and the Adriatic lived the Umbrians, speaking an Italic language. North of Etruria, in the mountain region that rises above the Riviera, were the

Ligurians, a race which once spread over a great part of the valley of the Po and southern France, and is commonly supposed to be related to the Iberians of Spain. From the fifth century onwards the most prominent people between the northern Apennines and the Alps were the Gauls, a Celtic-speaking stock, which then invaded the land, and threw out swarms far to the south along the eastern Adriatic shore.

With the aid of Greek savants the Romans strove to fix a date for the foundation of their city. After many experiments, the 21st day of April in the year seven hundred and fifty-three B.C. was officially accepted as the "birthday" of Rome. In the centuries from the third to the first B.C. a great cycle of legends was fabricated, to decorate with colour the foggy vista of the past. The myths were of vast variety. The stories most familiar to us, because we read them in the pages of Livy and Virgil, are a mere arbitrary selection from a varied store, in which native elements were wrought up with material drawn from the fables of Greece and Troy. A minor character in Homer's "Iliad," the Trojan prince Aeneas, son of Anchises and the goddess Aphrodite, was driven westward, and after a sojourn at Carthage, and a love episode with Queen Dido, sought "by destiny," as Virgil puts it, the land of Italy. The tale of Aeneas moved from east to west along with the spread of the worship of Aphrodite. It probably rooted itself in Rome as early as the end of the fourth century B.C., and grew until it reached its final glorification in the great epic, the "Aeneid" of Virgil. Traces remain of other legends which assigned to Romans a Greek origin, but the Trojan connection was finally accepted. The Greeks succeeded in finding Hellenic or Trojan pedigrees for the whole of the western European peoples, not only for those of Italy, but for the barbaric tribes of Gaul and Spain. The earlier forms of the story of Aeneas attributed the creation of Rome to him or his sons. But speculations about chronology created difficulties ;



From the painting]

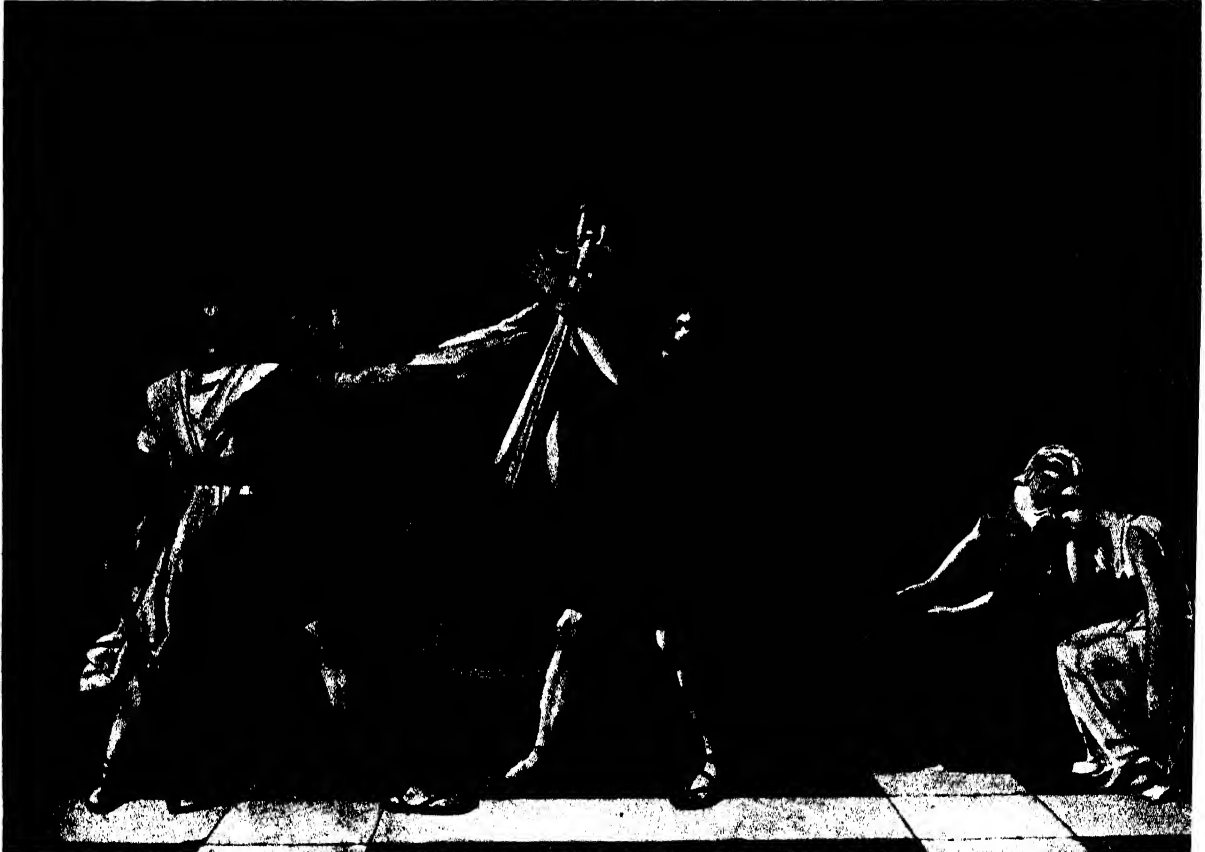
INTERCESSION OF THE SABINE WOMEN.

[By J. L. David.]

One of the favourite Roman legends, probably adopted from the Greeks, told that Romulus, the founder of Rome, having populated his city by making it an asylum for runaway slaves and criminals, could not procure enough women. He therefore carried them off by a cunning trick from his Sabine neighbours. The outraged fathers soon came in force to recover their daughters, but the girls, who were now quite contented in their new home, rushed between the combatants and prayed them to be reconciled.

so his descendants were planted as princes at the legendary city of Alba Longa, on the Alban mountain. They bear names in some cases which have been transferred from the pages of Greek writers. The priestess Rhea Silvia, a descendant of Aeneas, bore to the god Mars the twins Romulus and Remus. They designed to found Rome together but quarrelled; so Romulus killed Remus and reigned alone. His burgesses were a motley crew of outlaws who found sanctuary in the new city. He got together the scum of Latium, just as William the Conqueror enticed the scum of Europe to join him in the conquest of England.

Seven kings ruled in Rome and, according to the most generally accepted fable, the monarchical period lasted for two hundred and forty-four years. To the kings was ascribed in later times the creation



From the painting]

[By J. L. David

THE OATH OF THE HORATII.

A quarrel having arisen between the Romans and Albans, legend relates that the dispute was decided by a combat of three champions picked from each army. Three brothers, the Horatii, were chosen to represent Rome, and were victorious by stratagem. The picture shows the father of the Horatii presenting them with weapons for the contest, and blessing them, while his sons swear to be worthy of his gifts.

of all those institutions, military, political, religious and social, whose beginnings were lost in the mist of antiquity. When the annals of Rome began to be written, the regal period was embellished by detailed accounts of wars between Rome and neighbouring states, entirely mythical. The progress made by the city can be but dimly discerned. Yet it left such marks on the structure of the Roman polity in later ages that we can grasp with fair certainty some important developments, if only in broad outline.

If there ever was any tinge of divine right in the authority of the Roman king, such as lent sacredness to the "god-descended" princes of the Homeric age, it has been dissolved away by the traditions of the Republic. To Romulus, indeed, was given a descent from Mars, appropriate enough for the founder of a surpassingly warlike nation. Apart from this, the Roman kings are bourgeois figures. Their office was not supposed hereditary, but elective, dependent on the warriors whom they led. The king was the chief commander, priest and judge of the community. There was nothing theocratic about the



By permission of]

[The British Museum.

TERRA-COTTA ETRUSCAN SARCOPHAGI.

Above: Sarcophagus of the sixth century B.C., bearing upon it the figures of a husband and wife. The Etruscan inscription has not been deciphered. Below: Sarcophagus of a lady whose name was "Seianti Thanunia, wife of Tlesna." She is shown gazing at a mirror. The period is between 200 and 150 B.C., and the discovery was made at Chiusi.



Painted specially for this work

ETRUSCAN DEATH CEREMONIES

[By Allan Stewart.]

The Etruscans exercised a powerful influence over the early Roman customs. The gladiatorial shows, introduced into Rome in 264 B.C., belonged originally to the Etruscan death ceremonies, which were long and elaborate. They ended in feasting and the playing of wind instruments, the use of which the Romans learnt from the Etruscans.

commonwealth, but its prosperity depended on ascertaining, in due form, the will of the city's gods from moment to moment. In this quest the king was aided by skilled officers, augurs and pontiffs, whose functions, with ever decreasing prestige, continued to be exercised till Rome became Christian. There was never any priestly caste. All through the history of Rome the great religious and the great secular offices were tenable by the same persons. The primitive Roman gods had little or nothing about them that was anthropomorphic. They represented vague forces or influences working upon human life, easily appeased by ritual so rigorous that the right performance of every act, and even the right pronunciation of every word, was of consequence.

The king was *par excellence* the commander of the infantry, in which the military strength of the Romans always lay, and the same is true of his successors, the dictators and consuls of the Republic. The cavalry, though drawn from the wealthier class, was ever of minor importance. Service was deemed a privilege rather than a burden, and was at first confined to a section which alone enjoyed the full privileges of citizenship. This was the famous "patrician" body, strictly defined by birth.

The one word, "Imperium," which runs right through Roman history, summed up in its earliest use the whole authority of the king, in all its aspects. For the understanding of the entire constitutional development of the Roman state, it is important to grasp the fact that the "imperium" was, in theory, absolute. In practice, custom and precedent, which were at all times potent among Romans, formed a bar against capricious exercise of authority, even in the earliest age. Among primitive peoples, the domination of custom is immeasurably greater than in elaborated civilizations. The idea that, on important occasions, all men should look for competent advice, was inwrought into the consciousness of Romans, both as private citizens and as magistrates. The necessity for the king to seek counsel brought into existence the Senate, never in theory competent to bind the chief magistrate, but by degrees, in the later time, acquiring practical control.

Of the structure of the earliest Roman polity in other respects we obtain only a few glimpses. Attached to the patricians was a body of hereditary clients, whose name literally means "listeners." In relation to them the patrician heads of families were called "patroni," a word connected with "pater." The clients owed to their patrons duties which resembled those rendered by vassals to a feudal chief in the Middle Ages. Vassaldom or serfdom in various shapes existed in many ancient societies. As a practical constituent of the state, these "listeners" did not endure beyond the third century B.C., but they left a few traces in the legal system. There was also a large and continually growing body of plebeians (*plebei*), who at first were outside the pale of civic privilege. They struggled perpetually for admission within the constitution, and this strife determined to a large extent the course of early Roman history. It is a natural supposition, and it has often been made, that the clients and plebeians represent populations on whom invaders, the patricians, had fixed their yoke. But this opinion cannot be regarded as demonstrable. Relations of superiority and inferiority have existed among many populations, in ancient Italy and elsewhere, in circumstances which exclude the supposition of conquest or differences in blood. No single origin can be assigned to the plebeian body at Rome. That it was largely composed of immigrants is clear. Its religious cults differed from those of the patrician group. It is certain that numerous plebeians came from Latin towns. Many foreigners would settle and form what Greeks call a "metoec" class, and their descendants would be merged in the plebeian population.

We may picture the patricians as divided into clans (*gentes*), each settled on territory of its own. These organizations left a few memorials in the law of the later Roman Republic, particularly in the law of inheritance. The clans, again, were composed of families (*familiae*). Each family was ruled by the oldest living ancestor of the male line, whose authority extended to life and death, like that of the king, but, like his, was restrained by custom. The same word "imperium" is sometimes applied to the two forms of authority, but for the family the phrase "patria potestas" is regular. Except in the case of



TULLIA DRIVING OVER HER FATHER'S CORPSE.

Legend relates that Servius Tullius, one of the Etruscan kings of Rome, was murdered by his son-in-law Tarquinius Superbus, at the instigation of Tarquin's wife Tullia. After the wicked act had been committed, Tullia, driving through the city, came across her father's corpse lying in the street and commanded her charioteer to drive on.

military service, the head of the family (*paterfamilias*) stood completely between the members and the state. Both the family and the clan had internal jurisdiction, which restricted greatly that of the community. The disintegration of these two institutions contributed much to the formation of the later Roman state. At first the institution of the family, in the eye of the law, had no connection with the plebeian class, but plebeians and patricians were placed ultimately on the same level in this as in nearly all other respects. Even in its later relaxed form the "patria potestas" was regarded by Romans as an almost unique feature of their social order.

The conditions which have just been described may be called natural, as they manifestly arose without deliberate enactment. But some institutions which must be as old as the monarchical period are obviously artificial. Every privileged citizen was member of a "curia," and the "curia" was an



From the painting

THE CONSPIRACY TO RESTORE THE TARQUINS.

[By Léon Glatier.]

After the expulsion of the Tarquins, some young Roman patricians are said by Plutarch to have plotted the restoration of the exiled kings. To bind themselves by an irresistible oath, the conspirators drank the blood of a man they had sacrificed and placed their hands on his entrails. They met in a lonely house, but did not perceive a slave called Vindicius, who was there in hiding.

administrative division of the city's territory. This was the original basis for the enrolment of the army, and for the most ancient of the Roman assemblies, the "Comitia Curiata." That body, like the later "Comitia Centuriata," was a gathering of present and past warriors. Even sons who were still subject to control by the "paterfamilias" had, most likely, a voice in it. If the office of king was elective, under the constitution, as later Romans thought, the election was by this assembly, which represented the army. The "imperium" emanated from it, but it must be remembered that in a primitive community the sphere of the general government was narrow. The "curiae" had, even to a late day, a most intimate connection with religious practice. On that account we must regard the opinion that plebeians were admitted to the membership before the Republican age as unsound.

At some time within the monarchical era, near its end, a great reform of the army took place. Doubtless, imperative need forced the patricians to use the services of a class hitherto excluded from citizenship.



From the painting]

A ROMAN FATHER.

[By J. L. Herold.]

It is related that L. Junius Brutus, the leader of the movement which overthrew the monarchy and founded a republican constitution in Rome, was, as consul, placed in the unhappy position of having to try his own sons, who were implicated in the plot to restore the Tarquins. Deaf to all entreaties, he condemned them to death with the other traitors, and calmly watched the execution, ignoring afterwards the bewailings of his wife and daughters over the corpses of the unfortunate youths.



Painted specially for this work]

[By M. Doreaston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE "COMITIA CURIATA."

In the early days of Rome all patricians, which then meant every privileged citizen, were members of a *curia*, an administrative division of the city's territory. This was the original basis for the enrolment of the army, and for the ancient Roman assembly, the *Comitia Curiata*.

insignificant phantom of its former self. The century was one thing in the army, another in the field of Mars, but in both spheres there were grades of privilege. Membership of the army was connected with the holding of land by the heads of the families. No landless man had a place in the regular force, whose first name was "legio." Each of the later Roman legions may be regarded as a repetition of what was the whole levy of the community in primitive times. The equipment of the five classes in the field was varied, the wealthier men having the heavier armour. In the "Comitia Centuriata" the richer classes were placed in a position of superiority. Although the number of citizens in the wealthier sections was relatively small, the number of centuries into which they divided was relatively great. The vote of each century had the same effect. In Roman assemblies, voting was always by groups, never by heads, a practice which the Romans ridiculed when they saw it in the Greek democracies. Age also was given an advantage, because in each class the "seniores," the men above forty-five years of age, had the same voting power as the men below that age, the "juniores."

The centurial system bears traces of Greek influence, both on its military and on its civil side. We know that intercommunication between Rome and Greek cities in Italy and Sicily began very early in the life of the Roman state. The Romans assigned as creator of the organization a patriotic king, Servius Tullius. His name Servius, derived from *servus* (slave), marked him out as champion of the oppressed, and he became the legendary founder of Roman liberty. He was credited with the establishment of the "tribes," local districts into which the territory was divided. Four of these lay within the city walls. This "tribe" supplanted the "curia" as an administrative unit. No one could count as citizen whose name was not to be found on the register of the tribes. Membership at first depended on the possession of a minimum holding in land. The register was used for the levy of soldiers; also for the collection of the property-tax called "tributum," the oldest impost in Roman history. In later days, all property, not merely land, was taken into account, and expressed in terms of money. The "centuriæ"

The new army was not based on any local division like the "curia." Patricians and plebeians alike, within certain limits of age, were enrolled and split into groups or companies, each bearing the name "centuria," originally consisting of a hundred men. When the whole of the warriors, past and present, met for civil purposes, they constituted the famous "Comitia Centuriata," which came by degrees to overshadow the "Comitia Curiata." So long as it subsisted, military characteristics clung to the assembly of the centuries. It met in the "field of Mars," outside the city proper. Even when it was summoned in Republican days for purposes of legislation or election, it was described as "the army" (*exercitus*). Great was the conservatism of the Romans, and great their passion for pretending, when a considerable change had been made, that none had taken place. Down to the latest time of the Republic, no magistrate could exercise the "imperium" unless it were formally conferred upon him by the more ancient assembly, though that had become an

thing in the army, another in the field of Mars, but in both spheres there were grades of privilege. Membership of the army was connected with the holding of land by the heads of the families. No landless man had a place in the regular force, whose first name was "legio." Each of the later Roman legions may be regarded as a repetition of what was the whole levy of the community in primitive times. The equipment of the five classes in the field was varied, the wealthier men having the heavier armour. In the "Comitia Centuriata" the richer classes were placed in a position of superiority. Although the number of citizens in the wealthier sections was relatively small, the number of centuries into which they divided was relatively great. The vote of each century had the same effect. In Roman assemblies, voting was always by groups, never by heads, a practice which the Romans ridiculed when they saw it in the Greek democracies. Age also was given an advantage, because in each class the "seniores," the men above forty-five years of age, had the same voting power as the men below that age, the "juniores."

were then graded according to this valuation. To Servius Tullius was also attributed the third Roman assembly, the "Comitia Tributa"; but this almost certainly came into existence after the monarchy had been abolished. Servius Tullius was believed to have enlarged the boundaries of the city of Rome, and to have enclosed it by new fortifications. Exploration in recent times has brought to light portions of the "Servian wall," and of the "Servian rampart" of earthwork which formed a part of the enceinte. Scholars now believe that these remains are no older than the fourth century B.C.; but the defences of which they formed part may have been placed on the lines of older structures. The growth of the city in the late Republican age obliterated the "Servian" fortifications, and Rome was not fortified again until the reign of the Emperor Aurelian in the third century A.D.

It is remarkable that the legendary author of Roman freedom, "Servius Tullius," was believed to be of Etruscan descent. Before him reigned an Etruscan, Tarquin, and after him another Tarquin. That the Etruscans were for a time rulers of Rome, there can be little question. But it is an unproved and improbable assumption of some modern scholars, that the patricians at Rome were the Etruscan conquerors and the plebeians the conquered race. Wherever we find the Etruscans, they seem to have formed a thin stratum of the population, and to have made little impression on the original stocks where they held sway. In Campania, of which they held possession in the sixth and fifth centuries B.C., their presence left few marks behind it. The great Roman antiquarians of the time just before and just after the beginning of the Christian era, over-estimated the influence of Etruria upon Rome. The Etruscans were a channel by which the influence of Greek civilization reached the peoples whom they ruled, or near whom they dwelt. But they did not spread to any great extent their own peculiar institutions or practices. The Roman borrowings from Etruria were mainly in the field of religion. The minor religious



Painted specially for this work

A PATRICIAN AND HIS CLIENTS.

[By H. M. Burton.]

Attached to the patricians was a body of hereditary clients, whose name literally means "listeners." In relation to them the patrician heads of families were called *patroni*, a word connected with *pater*. The clients owed to their patrons duties which resembled those rendered by vassals to a feudal chief in the Middle Ages. Vassaldom or serfdom in various shapes existed in many ancient societies.

officials, called "haruspices" (diviners or soothsayers), were drawn from that country. The gladiatorial exhibitions, which tainted the civilization of the whole Roman empire, were first introduced from Etruria in 264 B.C. They belonged to the Etruscan cult of the dead. Like the Greek ghosts who came to the trench dug by Odysseus, as Homer tells, the departed spirits of Etruscans sought to be appeased by the shedding of blood. The primitive Roman religion was transformed by the infiltration of foreign ideas, but those which came from Hellas were far more potent than those which were drawn from Etruria.

The incidents of the revolution which overthrew the monarchy, as depicted in legend, were borrowed to a great extent from the story of Greece. The last king, "Tarquin the tyrant" (*Tarquinius Superbus*), has all the characteristics of the despot, who is a familiar figure in Greek history. He is magnificent in

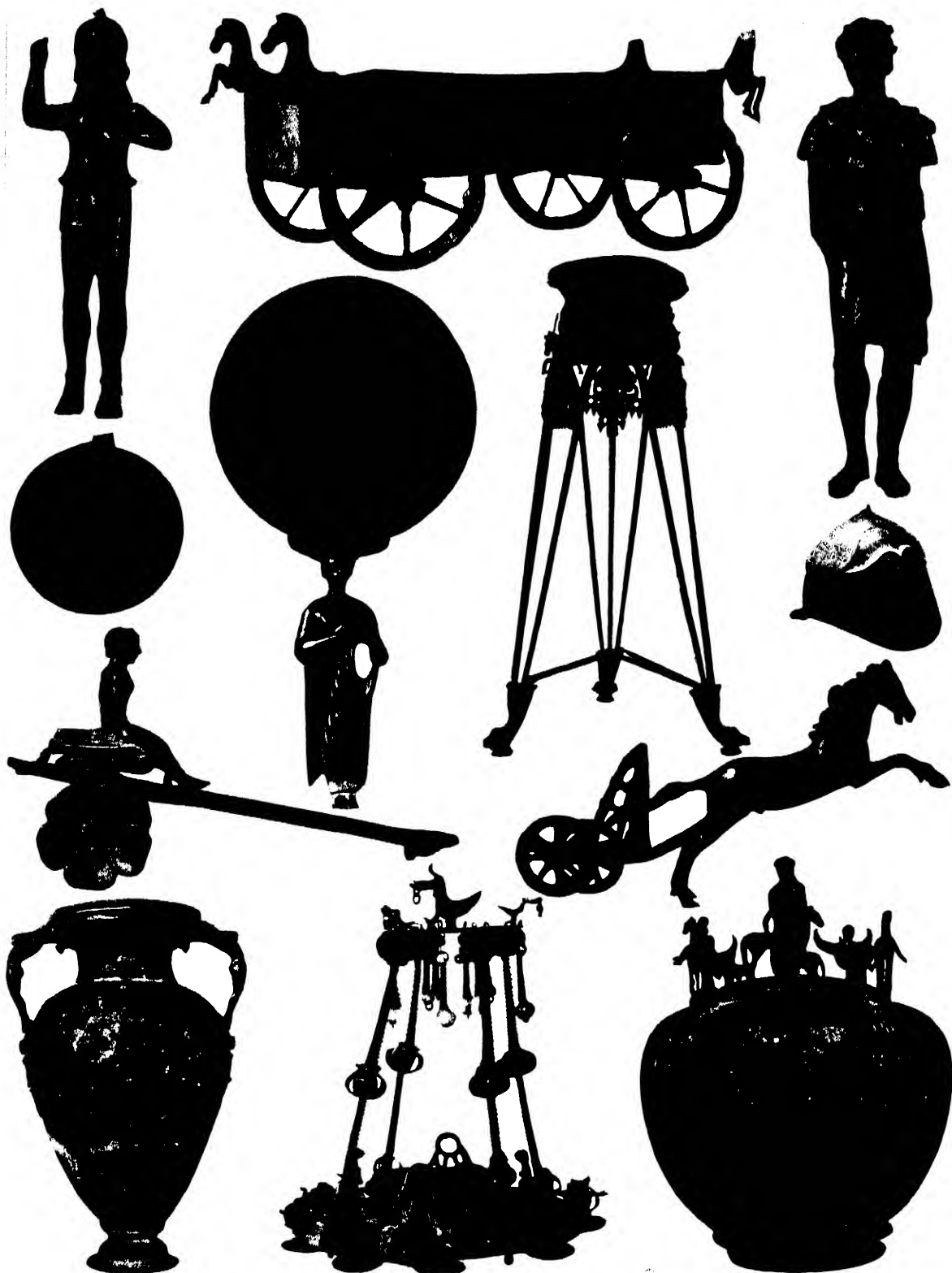
all his ways. He constructs mighty works, such as the "Cloaca Maxima," the great drain, and a new temple on the Capitoline hill, dedicated to the supreme god Jupiter. He extends the power of Rome by conquest and alliances. He falls as the Greek despots generally fell, in consequence of a movement that is aristocratic rather than popular. The story ran that an attempt was made to restore the Tarquin family some years after they had been driven out. They were aided by some or all of the Latin communities, but were defeated at the battle of Lake Regillus, when the great twin Greek divinities, Castor and Pollux, visibly favoured the Roman cause. The co-operation between Latins and Etruscans is hardly credible, and the part



THE EARLY PEOPLES OF ITALY.

played by Greek gods betrays the comparatively late origin of the legend.

However the kings may have fallen, their very name (*rex*) was odious to Romans in all succeeding ages, and those rulers who, like Sulla, wielded unlimited power, never ventured to adopt the title. The belief that Julius Caesar meant to call himself king and to wear a crown was fatal to him, as it had been to some statesmen of earlier times. The king, the lifelong chief magistrate, was replaced by two patrician officers, annually changed, called at first "praetors," and afterwards "consuls." Roman scholars believed that the quality of the authority (*imperium*) exercised by the new functionaries was in essence the same as that which the king had enjoyed. It was said that only two innovations were adopted. The authority was limited in time, and it was conferred in equal measure upon two persons at the same time. These changes, however, gave a great impulse to a new constitutional development. The Senate (which literally is "the council of elders") naturally grew in influence when the chief magistracy became temporary, and custom required that those who had passed the office should be included in the advisory



By permission of the British Museum.

[Mansell & Co.]

ETRUSCAN AND ROMAN BRONZE OBJECTS.

Reading from the left: Archaic Etruscan bronze figure of a warrior. Bronze brazier from the Polledrara Tomb, about 600 B.C. A bronze figure in barbaric armour (Gallo-Roman). Badge of a slave serving as a warrant for his arrest if he ran away; the inscription is quite legible. Archaic Etruscan mirror found at Naples. Archaic Etruscan bronze tripod and helmet, both from Volci. Demeter on rustic car with wheels in form of roses from Amelia in Etruria. Model of a two-horse chariot found in the Tiber. Archaic Etruscan vase from Volci. A representation of ploughing, probably associated with an archaic religious rite. Archaic Etruscan bronze vase from Capua.



Painted specially for this work]

ROMANS OFFERING SACRIFICES TO THE GODS.

[By A. C. Weatherstone.

Sacrifices and offerings, which formed the chief part of the worship of nearly all ancient races, were common among the Romans. Although they were not entirely free from human sacrifices, their most usual offerings were the *suovetaurilia*, consisting of a pig, a sheep, and an ox. The victim was killed by a specially appointed person called *pope*, and the better part of the intestines, strewed with barley-meal, wine, and incense, were burnt upon the altar.

body. The principle of "collegiality," that of placing important functions in the hands of small commissions, not of single persons, became the chief corner-stone of the Republican fabric. The senators remained in theory the nominees of the chief magistrates, who were, again in theory, not bound to accept their advice. But in practice the Senate became more and more the real governing body in the state.

The elections were in the hands of the great assembly of past and present warriors, the "Comitia Centuriata." One result was that the generals in chief were annually chosen by the voice of the army. But what would happen if the two consuls were at strife, or if some crisis, internal or external, made a divided authority inexpedient or even dangerous? The remarkable institution of the "dictatorship" provided a safety-valve. Either consul could, with sacral ceremonies, place in office for six months, by his mere nomination, a dictator, under whose orders both consuls would serve. The dictator, called also in old days "master of the people," was especially the commander of the infantry, which seems to have been once designated by the name "populus." He named as his subordinate a "master of the cavalry" (*magister equitum*). Magistrates called dictators were common in Latin cities, but the manner of appointment at Rome seems to have been peculiar. The Romans believed, and doubtless with truth, that the stability of the Republic, in its earlier period, depended greatly on the dictator's office. Tradition represented that it was only devised a few years after the Republic came into existence. But its necessity may have been foreseen, and provision made from the first. The dictator represented a passing restoration of monarchy. For him were suspended the two great fundamental principles of popular election and collegiality.

One other important innovation was assigned by tradition to the founders of the Republic. It was believed that every citizen now obtained as a right what had before been a matter of the king's grace only, the privilege of trial before the assembly of his fellow-citizens and fellow-soldiers, in cases where

his life or his status as burgess was at stake. This is the famous "provocatio," or right of appeal. The consuls were debarred from executing or driving into exile a citizen without the consent of the "Comitia Centuriata," which thus became a high court of justice. Near the end of the Republican age, criminal courts, deriving their commission from the comitia, were established. At first the new privilege was only effective within the city limits and in the space of a thousand paces beyond. Outside this radius the power of the consuls passed beyond control. But gradually the protection afforded to citizens against arbitrary punishment was extended all over Italy, and during the time of the empire over all the Roman dominions, when the cry "I am a Roman citizen" (*civis Romanus sum*) stayed the magistrate's hand. This result is seen in the familiar appeal of St. Paul, where "Caesar" takes the place of the Republican court. During the first two centuries of the Republic the dictator was not trammelled by the "provocatio." He was an actual six months' king.

As regards the initiation of the Republic it only remains to say that the great priesthoods, powerful in their bearing upon politics and administration, were for a long period not subjected to election like the secular magistracies. They remained as weapons in the hands of the aristocracy. The three great colleges were the Pontifices, who had a general control over religious ritual and practice; the Augurs, skilled interpreters of the signs sent by heaven, and the keepers of the famous Sibylline books, whose official title was "commissioners for the performance of sacred rites." Vacancies in these colleges continued to be filled by co-option till near the end of the Republican age. The augurs and pontiffs were maintainers of the ancestral Roman religion, but the keepers of the Sibylline books supervised the introduction of foreign gods and their ritual. Conservative as the Romans were, there yet came times of stress when their own gods seemed to have failed them, and they looked without for aid. Then it was ordered that the mysterious Sibylline oracles should be consulted. s was that



Painted specially for this work

[By Allan Stewart.]

A REVIEW OF KNIGHTS BY THE CENSORS.

A census was held in Rome every five years. On this occasion a parade was held of the *centuries* of knights, and their horses were inspected by the censors. This took place on the Campus Martius, and at the same time new *equites*, or knights, were appointed.

some Hellenic divinity was recognized, or that some new ritual of Hellenic pattern was attached to the worship of a native god who was identified with a god of Greece. In this way, in course of time, Roman religion was largely transformed and approximated to that of Greece.

The date most commonly accepted by Romans for the foundation of the Republic was the year 509 before Christ. Its history for two centuries was scantily recorded. Only about the end of the third century B.C. did Romans begin to write the annals of their country. For the early times of the Republic there was little authentic material. The high pontiff (*pontifex maximus*) kept each year a meagre register, showing the chief magistrates for each year, the triumphs that had been celebrated, striking events, such as famines, pestilences, notable occurrences bearing on religion, and like matters. These year-books were edited and rendered accessible, perhaps, for the first time about the conclusion of the struggle with the Samnites, in 290. The early historical writers began the process of giving body and blood to these



From the painting

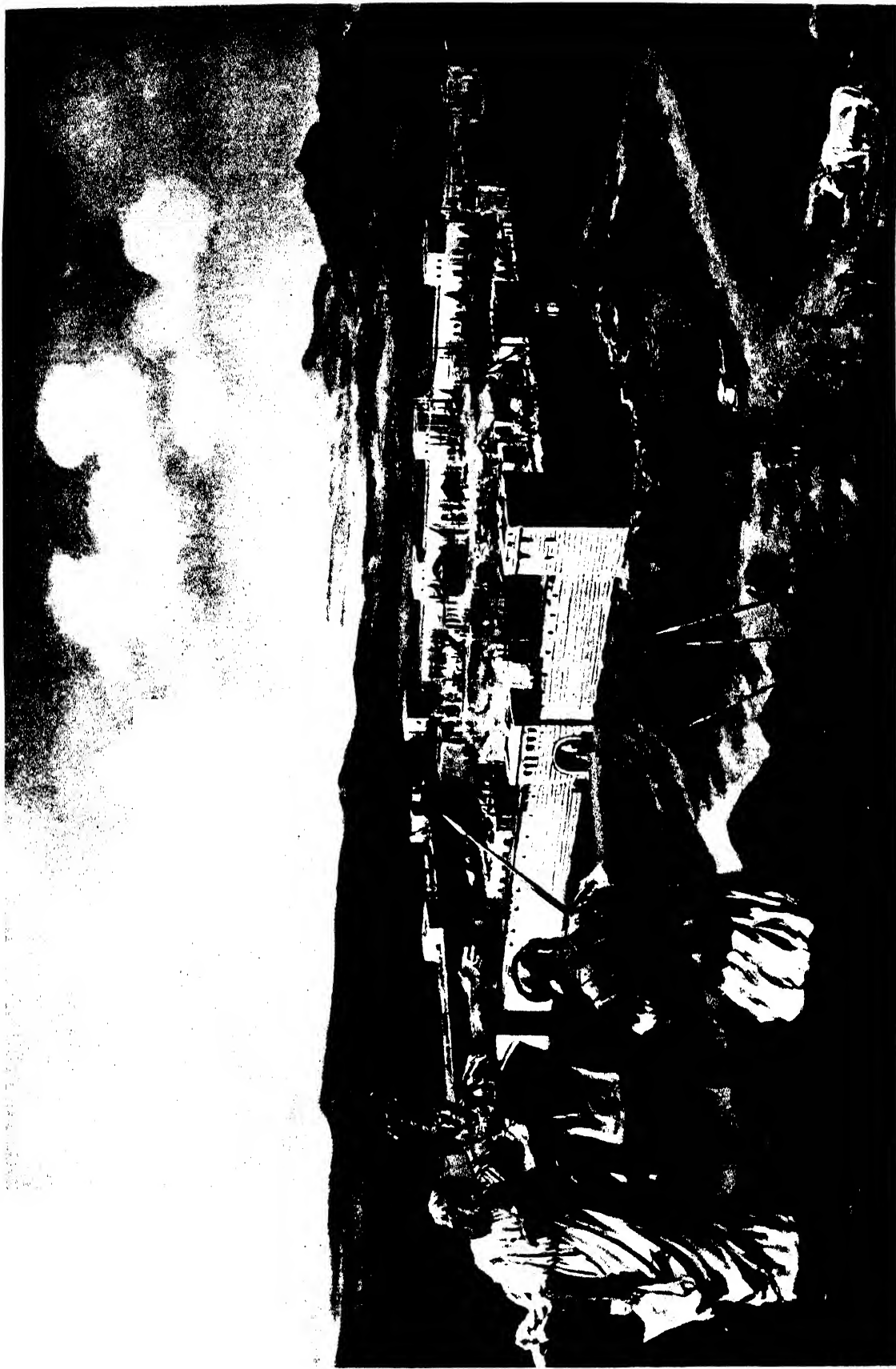
CORIOLANUS AND THE ROMAN MATRONS.

[By Singleton.]

During the Roman wars with the Volscians in the early fifth century it is related that C. Marcius Coriolanus, a Roman patrician who had been exiled on account of his haughty and insolent behaviour, offered his services to the Volscians, and led them victoriously to within five miles of Rome. Determined at first to reduce the city, he was only turned from his purpose by the prayers of some noble Roman matrons, who came from the city, headed by his mother and his wife.

barren annals by resort to sources into which much that was mythical had been inwoven. These were, in part, the vaunting chronicles of families who had been powerful in the state. Much was derived from Greek writers who had busied themselves with the obscure ages of Rome. The first Roman annalists wrote in Greek, in an unliterary fashion; when Latin was used a little later, it was, by all accounts, of a rude kind. The endeavours, from the middle of the second century onwards, to create a Latin historical literature after Greek models, led not unnaturally to further perversions of truth. How far the evolution went is shown by the work of Valerius Antias, who in the age of Sulla (about 80 B.C.) knew to a man how many soldiers were killed and wounded in the battles fought by Romulus and the other kings. Tales in English chronicles, such as that of Brut the Trojan, with which Milton began his history of England, the legends of King Arthur and many others, afford parallels.

When Livy wrote, the idea that history was above all a branch of literature had become dominant. The historian was often placed side by side with the poet. Criticism was much weaker than it had been among the Greeks. Livy did honestly endeavour to present legend as legend and fact as fact; but in



Painted specially for this work

A LATIN COLONY.

[By J. H. Valla.]

During the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. the Latin-speaking people began expanding beyond their old territory. They threw off swarms who went to found new fortified cities, each with its own territory. These were the *coloniae* in the Latin sense. The word indicated a town with a small domain or estate surrounding it, on which it depended for sustenance. Although at first independent, these little states all eventually came to acknowledge the suzerainty of Rome.

the circumstances, his critical sieve was bound to retain much that was mythical. A hasty perusal of the early Roman story, as told by him and others of his class, might discourage the attempt to find truth in it at all. And indeed the personal elements of the tale, and the records of wars, are often obviously and elaborately untrue. These, however, are the features of the tradition which have fascinated later generations, and have affected widely the literature of ancient and modern days. The moving pictures of Lucretia, whose wrongs brought the monarchy to ruin ; of Virginia, who, slain by her father to guard her from shame, rescued her country from a despotism ; of Coriolanus, who took dread vengeance on his native land for cruelty dealt out to him, and only relented at his mother's entreaty ; of Manlius, the champion who kept the Gauls out of the fortress of the Capitol—these and many others have supplied themes for poets and dramatists all down the ages. These legends bear on their fronts the Roman characteristics and express the Roman ideals of life ; so a kind of truth is enshrined in them.

When we look beneath the surface, we find that there is a solid core to the history, less fascinating, but more intrinsically valuable than the stirring personal scenes whose accuracy the student regretfully surrenders. There can be traced in outline, with fair distinctness, the processes whereby the internal and external affairs of Rome were brought into the condition which they present when she emerges into the clear light of history. We will first sketch the advance of the Romans towards the conquest of Italy. To understand this, it is of importance to realize the relations of Rome with other towns of Latium. In its earliest acceptation, the name Latium covered only a small district, round about the Alban hills, a few miles from Rome. The Latin towns, with Rome, were members of a racial confederation of a loose kind, of which the strongest bond was religion. The symbol of membership was participation in the worship of the " Latin Jupiter " (*Jupiter Latiaris*), conducted on the summit of the Alban mountain.



Painted specially for this work

[By F. Gordon.]

THE DECENVIRS FRAMING THE TWELVE TABLES.

About the year 451 B.C. incessant agitation of the subject classes led to a bold experiment. Existing political offices were all suspended and the government was placed in the hands of a board of ten (*Decemviri*). The Decemvirs framed a code of laws which mitigated many of the grievances of the unprivileged order. This was the framed code of the Twelve Tables to which the later Romans looked back as the starting-point of their legal system, their greatest gift to the world.



From the painting by H. Le Roux.

THE SCHOOL OF VESTALS.

[By permission of Messrs. Braun et Cie.]

The existence of the virgin priestesses of Vesta, who ministered in her temple and watched the eternal fire, is connected with the earliest Roman traditions. Their establishment in Rome is generally ascribed to Numa. They possessed many important privileges, but were treated with great harshness if they broke their vows.

This league resembled much those which the Greeks called by the name of "Amphiktiony." There was a provision that the cities should not attack each other during the season of the sacred ceremonies. We may suppose that the confederacy only cohered and acted as a whole under pressure from foes outside, when the feeling of racial unity would be strong.

When Rome, instead of being merely a member of the Latin league, became dominant over it, a tale was invented to justify her supremacy. It was said that an ancient city called "Alba Longa" had existed at the top of the Alban mountain, and that all other Latin cities were colonies founded by her and so owed obedience to her. They were supposed to number thirty, and the portent of the sow with the litter of thirty young, which appears in Virgil's "Aeneid," foretold the history to Aeneas. His descendants founded Alba, and reigned there for many generations. The fourth king of Rome destroyed the parent city, and Rome succeeded to her rights. It is more than doubtful whether such a city as the Alba of the legend ever existed. Alba was not the only ancient Latin town which, in the varying versions of mythical history, claimed to be the mother of all the Latin cities. The date at which Rome first acquired suzerainty over the old Latium cannot be determined. Tradition sometimes placed it in the period of monarchy, and regarded the aid given by the Latins to the Tarquins as a rebellion. A new treaty was said to have been concluded by Spurius Cassius in 493, whereby the Latin towns acknowledged Roman ascendancy, and the same negotiator a few years later admitted the Hernicans to the alliance, on the same terms. The cities were required to supply forces at the call of Rome and to allow her to direct all their foreign relations, but they retained their internal autonomy. The text of a treaty, engraved on stone, which was supposed to be that of Spurius Cassius, was extant in Rome at the end of the Republican age, but there is greater likelihood that it was a compact concluded much later, in 358. What is clear, and of much importance, is that during the fifth and fourth centuries B.C. the Latin-speaking people were expanding beyond their old territory. They were throwing off swarms who went to found new fortified cities, each with its own domain around it. These were "colonies" (*coloniae*) in the Latin sense. The Romans did not apply the term "colony," as we do, to any large area. The word "colonia" always indicates a town with a small territory or estate around it, on which it depends for sustenance. The Latin colonies were at first founded by authority of the whole confederation to secure

the conquests made, and new settlements were admitted to the religious privileges of the league. About the year 382 the sacral league was closed and later foundations were not admitted within it. When Rome became supreme, she acted in the name of the league, and established many Latin colonies, which were fortresses intended to defend newly-acquired territory. The last of the series was Aquileia (181).

In spite of the story that the Latins were subjected to the control of Rome in 493, we have accounts of many conflicts between her and the Latins, down to 338, after which the predominance of Rome was unquestioned. Until the year 358 the whole Latin league was never involved in these wars, which were carried on by single Latin cities or small groups of cities. The struggle of 358 was general and, perhaps for the first time, Rome acquired supremacy by a treaty covering all the



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

THE SIBYLLINE BOOKS.

The Sibylline books, which came to Rome from a Greek source, though it is doubtful from what quarter, were kept in a stone chest underground in the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. The books were only consulted at the special command of the Senate, by the officers in charge of them. The legend from which they derived their name told that they had originally been sold to one of the Tarquins by a Sibyl, or prophetess.

towns. There was a great revolt in 338, ending after two years in a complete Roman victory. During this whole period, however, there were many times when, according to tradition, Rome and all the Latins joined for defence against neighbouring nations, especially the Aequi and Volsci. These enemies sometimes gained ground, but, on the whole, were steadily driven back, so that "Latium," in the later language, included the domains of these ancient foes. At the end of the fourth century the land of the Hernicans was incorporated with it.

Within the period of which we have been speaking, advances in other directions were made. The Sabines, to the east of Rome, never made any great resistance. The Etruscans were, for long, formidable enemies. During the fifth century their power began to wane, both at sea and on land. They suffered a series of naval defeats at the hands of the Greeks. The British Museum possesses a helmet with an



From the painting

THE TRAGIC DEATH OF VIRGINIA.

[By L. L. Lethiere.

The story of the overthrow of the Decemvirs and the second "Secession" of the plebeians is familiar to most students of Roman history. The haughty aristocrat, Appius Claudius, was a would-be despot. It is told that, inflamed by the beauty of the plebeian maiden, Virginia, he tried to gain possession of her by an outrageous act of tyranny. Her father, unable in any other way to save his daughter from shame, slew her. Hastening to the army, camped outside Rome, in which he was a centurion, he became one of the leaders of the revolt which brought about the downfall of Appius Claudius and the Decemvirate.



Painted specially for this work]

[By H. M. Burton.

AUSPICES EXAMINING SACRIFICES.

The *auspices*, or *haruspices*, were soothsayers and diviners, usually born of Etruscan families, who interpreted the will of the gods from the entrails of animals offered in sacrifice, and also from lightning, earthquakes, and other natural phenomena. They never acquired the political importance of the *augurs* or *priests*, and in later times seem to have fallen into disrepute, as Cicero relates a saying of Cato that he wondered one *haruspex* did not laugh when he saw another.

by the Gauls was the first event in her history to attract the general attention of the Greeks. Aristotle, in the time of Alexander the Great (who died in 323), knew of it. Recovery, after the hero Camillus, the conqueror of Veii, drove away the foe, was speedy. In some degree, the Gaulish raids, which continued for a good many years after the great deliverance, aided the advance of Rome. They weakened and employed the peoples to the north, while the Romans extended their power to the east and south. By 340 they had come into contact with the most formidable nation in Italy, the Samnites, the speakers of the Oscan dialect. But before the struggle with them began, the Latins made a combined effort to rid themselves of the Roman overlordship. They failed, and they never again questioned the primacy of the Roman state. The war ended in 338. The Latin towns were isolated from one another, each being bound to Rome by a special compact. Some other disabilities, which proved to be temporary, were imposed over and above the obligation to assist Rome in time of war. The Romans very wisely refrained from taxing their allies, a practice which had prevented other ancient cities, as Athens and Sparta, from keeping together an empire. There was no interference with the internal affairs of the towns, unless disorder compelled it. The policy of breaking up confederations of cities and making agreements with separate communities, was pursued steadily by the Romans ever after in their career of conquest. As was said by themselves, "to divide and rule" was their secret.

The period from the establishment of the Republic to the conclusion of the Latin war had been one of much civil conflict and development at Rome. The changes had been effected without bloodshed, a rare phenomenon in ancient history. The unprivileged classes, who are summed up as "plebeian," clamoured for political recognition. Their chief weapon was refusal at times of crisis to perform military

inscription showing that it was dedicated at Olympia to Zeus by Hiero of Syracuse, as part of the spoils of a victory won over the Etruscan fleet at Cumae. In the same century the Gauls pressed hard on the Etruscans in the north, and the Samnites deprived them of their power in Campania. They had been much weakened when the Romans captured the great Etruscan city of Veii, after a siege of ten years (405-395), as the tradition had it.

The progress of Rome was checked, but only for a brief space, by the tide of the Gaulish invasion, which reached it in 390. The defeat sustained by the Roman force at the little river Allia, close to the city, was never forgotten. Its anniversary was the blackest day in the calendar. The capture of Rome

service. In 494 came what was called the first "Secession." A "Secession" was a strike against the duties imposed by authority, and at the same time a threat to abandon Rome and found a new commonwealth. The plebeians returned to their allegiance on being allowed to elect annually officers, called "Tribunes of the people," who should have some power of protecting members of their own order against an arbitrary exercise of authority by the patrician magistrates. These Tribunes, at first two, but soon to become ten in number, had but an ill-defined and narrow sphere of action; but it was gradually widened until, in the last century of the Republic, they became by far the most potent force in politics. The steps by which this end was reached are difficult to trace. The Tribune's person was made inviolable. He was "sacrosanctus"—that is, an offence against him was an offence against the gods. Starting from this, he obtained a power of obstruction, and a power of initiation, at first limited; later, in theory at least, unlimited. But the great Roman principle that, among equal authorities, he who vetoes or obstructs action, takes precedence of him who urges action, applied to the Tribunes. In order that the Tribunate should become an instrument of reform, it was needful that all ten Tribunes should be of one mind. The Tribunes had as their assistants two "Aediles," also plebeian.

The revolution of 494 sprang from causes which were partly political, partly economic. The wealthier men among the plebeians were aiming at a share in the government of the country. The poorer wanted relief from some of the results of their poverty. In early Rome, as in early Athens, the law of debt was remarkably severe. The debtor ran risk of losing his liberty as well as his property. It was alleged that the law, which was as yet an aristocratic secret, was unduly stretched against him. It was especially the duty of the new officers to interfere in cases of injustice. Possibly from the first, certainly before long, a purely plebeian form of assembly (*concilium plebis*) was created, which elected the Tribunes and Aediles, and championed plebeian interests against patrician.

About the year 451 came a great crisis. Incessant agitation by the subject class led to a bold experiment. Existing political offices were all suspended, and the government was placed in the hands of a board of ten (*Decemviri*). Whether the change was intended to be permanent is matter for doubt. Probably the expedient was from the first meant to be temporary. The Decemvirs finally redressed or mitigated many of the grievances of the unprivileged order by framing a written code which curbed the caprice of the patrician judges, with whom the law had been a sacral mystery, not to be



Painted specially for this work]

[By H. M. Burton.

THE TAKING OF VEII.

This great Etruscan city fell to the Romans early in the fourth century B.C. after a long siege. Its capture is said to have been due to the discovery of a tunnel leading beneath the fortifications. During this war the Roman soldiers, being obliged to pass whole years under arms, for the first time received pay, and to this circumstance we may trace the beginnings of a standing army.

comprehended by the profane vulgar. This was the famed code of the Twelve Tables, to which the later Romans looked back as the starting-point in the long evolution of their legal system, their greatest gift to the world. Although mostly directed to the private side of law, the Twelve Tables contained some provisions which were of political importance; for example, a prohibition against enactments to the detriment of individuals. An "Act of Attainder" was unconstitutional at Rome. Some modern scholars

have tried to show that the traditional date of the code is much too early; but their contention is unproved and improbable. The tale of the overthrow of the Decemvirs in 449 is familiar. The chief of them, the haughty aristocrat, Appius Claudius, was a would-be despot. He and the plebeian maiden Virginia, whom he marked out for his victim, are the principal figures in the drama. The *dénouement*, as in 493, was brought about by a military revolt, a "Secession." All the suspended institutions of the commonwealth were revived. The position of the plebeian body in the state was further strengthened and defined. By the side of the plebeian assembly (the "Concilium Plebis") and of the Comitia Centuriata, of which a sketch has been already given, was placed an assembly that included both orders, the patrician as well as the plebeian, but was based on the local "tribus," not on the "centuria." Its function was at first to elect minor officers, other than those appointed by the "Concilium Plebis"; but it soon came to be used for certain purposes of legislation. Two officers called "Quaestors" were now annually elected by the "Comitia Tributa," to assist the chief magistrates. In 421 their number was increased to four, and plebeians were made eligible. Twelve years later the first plebeian suc-



From the fresco by Maccari]

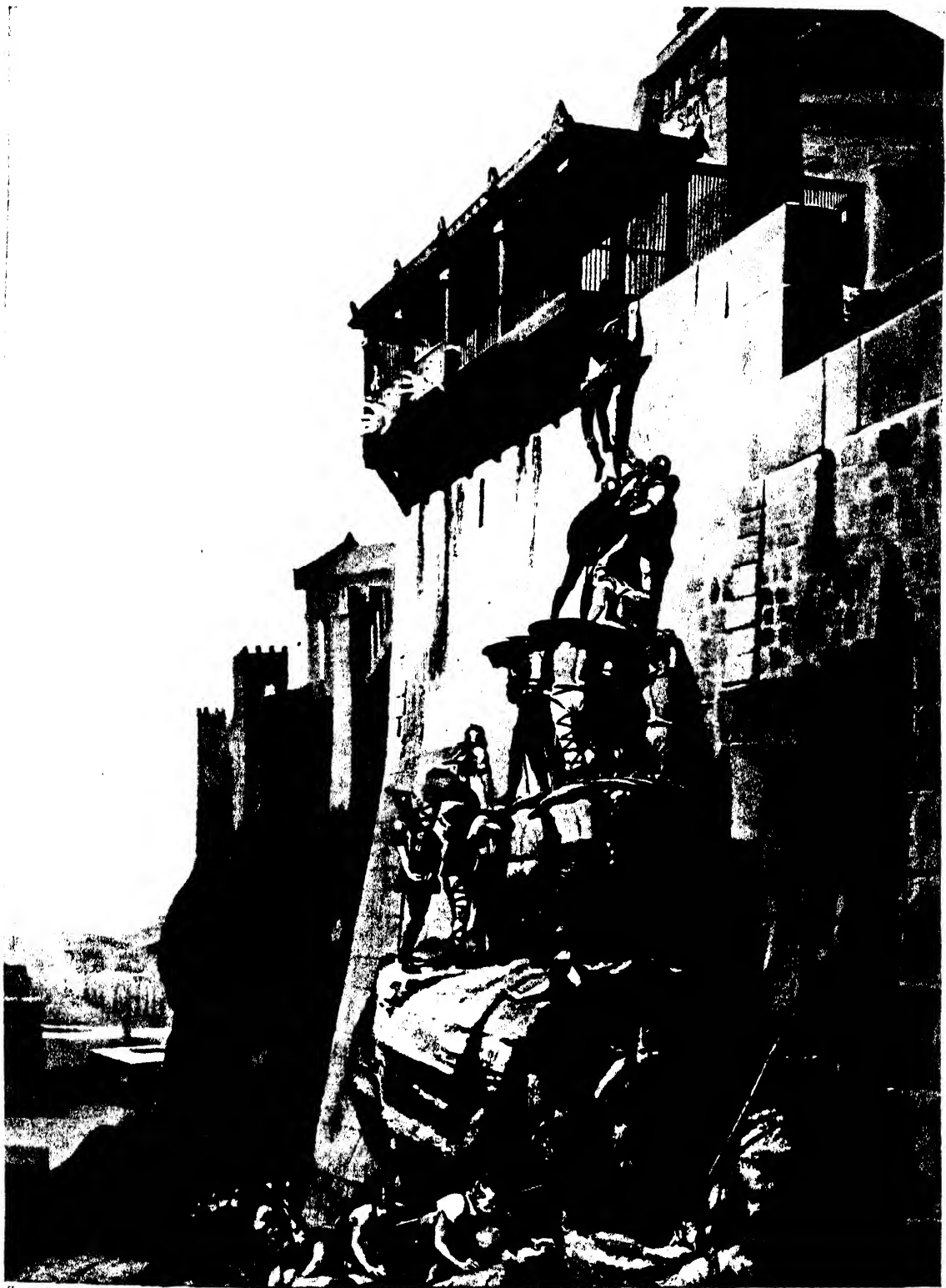
[In the Senate House at Rome.

THE MURDER OF MARCUS PAPIRIUS.

The story runs that when the inhabitants of Rome abandoned their city to the Gauls in 390 B.C. some aged patricians and senators refused to leave their homes. The Gauls beheld them sitting motionless, like figures of stone. For some time they gazed at the old men in awe, until one of their number ventured to stroke the beard of M. Papirius. The old man struck him with his sceptre, whereupon the barbarian slew him, and his companions massacred the rest.

ceeded at the poll. This was the earliest introduction of plebeians to an office which concerned the whole Roman people, for their Tribunes and Aediles were as yet to a large extent in practice, what they always were in theory, sectional officers. In legislation, the centuries were for a time supreme.

In 445 a fresh step was taken to conciliate the plebeian body, or its wealthier members, and it was a singular one. When the Senate so determined with respect to any year, the consuls were replaced by a board of six members, called "military tribunes with consular authority" (*tribuni militares consulari*



From the painting by H. P. Stotte.]

[By permission of Messrs. Braun et Cie.]

JUNO'S GEESSE SAVE THE CAPITOL

While the Gauls were in Rome legend tells that having discovered a secret way up to the Capitol, they attacked it in the dead of night. The foremost of them had reached the top unnoticed by the sentinels, when the cries of some geese roused Marcus Manlius from sleep. These geese, sacred to Juno, had been spared notwithstanding the gnawings of hunger, and the Romans were rewarded for their piety. Manlius thrust down the Gaul and gave the alarm, and the Capitol was saved.



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE FIRST SECESSION.

In 494 B.C., soon after the Gaulish invasion, came the first "Secession"—a strike against the duties imposed by authority, accompanied by a threat to abandon the rebuilding of Rome and to found a new commonwealth. The patricians exhorted the plebeians not to desert the home of their fathers, and, on being allowed to elect annually two "Tribunes of the people" to watch over their interests, they returned to their allegiance.

end of the Republican period. Within a few years after 367 the offices still confined to patricians were thrown open, it seems, not by legislation, but by general consent. The dictatorship, the office of *magister equitum*, the praetorship, the censorship, all became accessible. As to the censorship, the same rule that applied to the consulship was adopted—that both places were open to plebeian candidates, while one place was reserved for them. But it is a singular illustration of Roman conservatism that not till 172 B.C. did two plebeian consuls hold office together, and not till 131, two plebeian censors.

Thus the old quarrel between the privileged and the unprivileged classes was ended. A new nobility was developed, based on the distinctions which families had won in the career of civic office. The attainment of a "curule" magistracy—that is to say, of a "curule" aedileship, a praetorship, consulship or dictatorship, ennobled a family. Its relative brilliance depended on the number of such distinctions of which it could boast. Military triumphs especially added to family renown. As the power and prestige of the censorship grew, its importance was enhanced. The nobles kept in their houses busts (*imagines*) of their distinguished ancestors, with a record of their achievements. The so-called "right

potestate). Patricians and plebeians were equally eligible, but it seems that down to 400 no plebeian won a place on the board. The struggle for complete equality between the two orders went on, and culminated in 367 in a great revolution. It is curious to read in Livy that the opposition to it was based mainly on religious grounds. The plebeians were profane persons with whom the gods could not be expected to hold communion. The "military tribunate with consular authority" was swept away. Plebeians were admitted to the consular office, at first equally with patricians. A little later it was enacted that both consuls might be plebeians, while one must be. Further, in 367 a new magistracy was created, to which the ancient title of praetor was assigned. All legal administration, hitherto carried on by the chief magistrates, was assigned now to the praetor, who was patrician. The old aristocracy were less disinclined to yield military command to capable plebeians than the holy arcana of the law. Two "curule aediles" were set over against the plebeian aediles, who now became dissociated from the Tribunes of the people. The four aediles were in the main police magistrates and overseers of the markets and public buildings. A curious arrangement was adopted with regard to the "curule" aedileship. It was given to patricians and plebeians in alternate years, down to the

of busts" (*ius imaginum*) was the equivalent of the modern patent of nobility. In about a century a ring of governing families was formed, and it was only at very rare intervals that a "new man" (*novus homo*) attained the consulship.

The political agitation since the foundation of the Republic had been bound up with an agrarian movement, the incidents of which are obscure. The national estate (*publicus ager*) was in principle for the enjoyment of the citizens at large, but the more wealthy had tended to monopolize it. Licinius and Sextius, who conducted the revolution of 367 to a successful issue, passed a famous agrarian law, which restricted the size of the leasehold occupations in the public land, arable and pasture alike, and required that rent should be duly paid to the treasury. But the agrarian question remained to plague the Romans till the Republic came to an end. The administration of the national property was sometimes lax and permitted illegitimate interests to grow up. Attempts at reform caused from time to time much excitement.

The fight for personal equality in the quest for office was practically over by the time when the great Latin war began in 340; and Roman expansion, aided by internal peace, became rapid. A footing in Campania had already been acquired. The Greeks there had been giving way before the Samnites, and their cities, beginning with Neapolis (Naples), were glad to ally themselves with the Romans. Three wars were needed before the Samnites were subdued. The second conflict (327-304) was the most serious. In the course of it (318) the Romans suffered their celebrated defeat at the Caudine Forks, when their whole army endured the humiliation of being passed under the yoke by their foes. But, on the whole, they made steady progress, and led their forces for the first time across the Apennines, establishing garrisons in Apulia. Early in the fourth century Rome had acquired the southern portion of Etruria, up to the Ciminian Forest, and it was rapidly Latinized by settlers, while frontier fortresses barred the road to the south. Now the conquest of Etruria was completed, and Hernicans to the south-east of Rome, Sabines to the east and Umbrians in the north, gradually submitted. The Roman policy was to make treaties, not with nations, but with separate cities, and, as a rule, local autonomy was respected. In this age a new and important political device was brought into operation. Many cities in Campania and in the country of the Sabines and Hernicans received, probably by consent and not by force, the private privileges of the Roman citizenship, without the right to sue for or to vote for the Roman magistracies. This



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

MANLIUS PAYING A SOLDIER'S DEBTS.

Manlius, the patrician who was credited with the honour of saving the Capitol from the Gauls, is said to have become a champion of the plebeians as a result of his disappointment at receiving no reward for his exploits. Seeing one day a soldier who had served with him enslaved by a creditor, Manlius paid his debt on the spot, and swore that as long as he had a single pound no Roman should be imprisoned for debt.

is the famous "passive franchise" (*civitas sine suffragio*). Each of the cities which accepted it received from Rome an officer elected by the "Comitia Tributa" at Rome, who administered the higher departments of the law; but in other respects each city-commonwealth managed its own affairs.

We have spoken above of the "Latin Colony," which supplied a means of securing newly-conquered territory. It was also a centre for spreading Latin influence. After the Latin war a new series of colonies came into existence. Roman burgesses were dispatched on this duty. The colony, whether Roman or Latin, was in its inception a branch of military service. It was a peculiarity of the Roman burgess-colony that it was nearly always planted on the sea-coast, as at Ostia, Antium and Puteoli. Most of the Latin colonies were inland fortresses, controlling important strategic positions, as at Aesernia and Beneventum in Samnium and Spoletium in Etruria. A few of the maritime Latin settlements were of



Painted specially for this work

[By N. Prescott-Davies]

A ROMAN SALE.

Symbolism played a large part in early Roman law. A purchase was always made in the presence of five citizens who represented an assembly, and of a sixth who held a balance in his hand. The buyer placed in the balance a piece of brass, which represented the price of the thing sold, and then declaimed: "This is mine by the law of the Romans; I have bought it with this brass duly weighed."

consequence, as Ariminum (Rimini) and Brundisium (Brindisi). The higher parts of legal administration in the Roman citizen colonies, as in the towns which possessed the "passive franchise," were in the hands of commissioners (*præfecti*) sent out from Rome. The number of settlers planted at these places was not great; but their effect upon the districts around them was immense. The colonists in a Roman burgess-colony usually numbered three hundred. Each received a small allotment of land. In a few generations their descendants had amalgamated with the original inhabitants to form a single Romanized and Latin-speaking community. The colonists of Latin origin were always more numerous, some thousands being settled together at one spot. Apart from these settlers, who founded city-commonwealths, allotments in conquered land were often given to individual Romans, as in the Pomptine district and southern Etruria in the fourth century, and in Picenum in the third. This process more nearly resembles what modern states understand by colonization. But at no time in the ancient world was



Painted specially for this work

by J. H. Vallet

MARCELLUS' DUEL WITH VIRDUMARUS.

In 222 B.C. a notable encounter, famous ever after in song, drama and story, took place between the Romans and Gauls at Clastidium, near Pavia. In the course of the battle the consul Marcellus singled out the Gallic leader Virdumarus, and slew him with his own hand, thus gaining what was called the "spolia opima," a guerdon that fell only to two other generals in the whole history of Rome.

there any movement of population comparable in its scale with the emigration from the European states of modern days.

The Samnites made their last stand against Rome at the great battle of Sentinum in Umbria in 295. They had Etruscans and Umbrians for their allies. Their defeat decided that all Italy was to be controlled by the Roman power. One more effort, however, was made to burst the trammels of fate. The Greek city of Tarentum in the south was an important state, with a considerable territory, a great sea-borne commerce, and a navy. For a long time the Hellenic communities in southern Italy had been declining, partly from dissensions of their own, partly by becoming involved in contests which began among the Greeks of Sicily, but chiefly because of the attacks made from the north by invading swarms, thrown off by the Samnites and other peoples. The Italian Greeks had several times invited over Hellenic



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

LICTORS CARRYING FASCES.

The *lictors* were public officers who attended the chief Roman magistrates. They inflicted punishments on those sentenced by the magistrates, and commanded everyone to pay a proper respect to their masters as they went through the city. Twelve *lictors* preceded a consul, six or two a praetor. When in the execution of their duties they invariably carried the *fasces*.

generals to help them against the Lucanians, Bruttians and other barbarians. Now a sterner struggle must be faced. The Tarentines quarrelled with Rome, and called in the famous Pyrrhus, prince of Epirus, who had welded together the tribes and towns of that land into a solid state. He was a formidable warrior, emulating the Homeric Achilles, whom he claimed as his forefather. His phalanx defeated the Roman host at Heraclea, and again at Ausculum in Apulia in 281-280. It is said that even in the hour of victory he foresaw his ultimate failure, so undaunted were the Romans in defeat. The Italian Greeks, whom no peril could ever win over to staunchness and loyalty, failed him, and he wasted his strength upon two campaigns in Sicily. He was finally defeated in 275 at Beneventum in Samnium, and left Italy to meet his death in Greece by a tile flung at him by a woman in the street of a captured city. "What a fine field we are leaving for the Romans and Carthaginians," said he, on parting from Italy, according to tradition. Like most sayings attributed to famous men, it is probably apocryphal, but it accurately pictures the political situation which he left behind.

Internal controversy at Rome was lulled almost to complete rest for a century and a half by the passing of the "lex Hortensia" in 287. This was the final step in an evolution which had taken many generations to accomplish. Putting on one side the old "Comitia Curiata," which had ceased to be of importance, and survived only as a venerable form, there were three public assemblies, convened for legislation and elections: the "Comitia Centuriata," voting by centuries, the "Comitia Tributa," voting by tribes, and the "Concilium Plebis," also voting by tribes. From this last the patricians were



From the painting]

[By G. G. Gleyre.

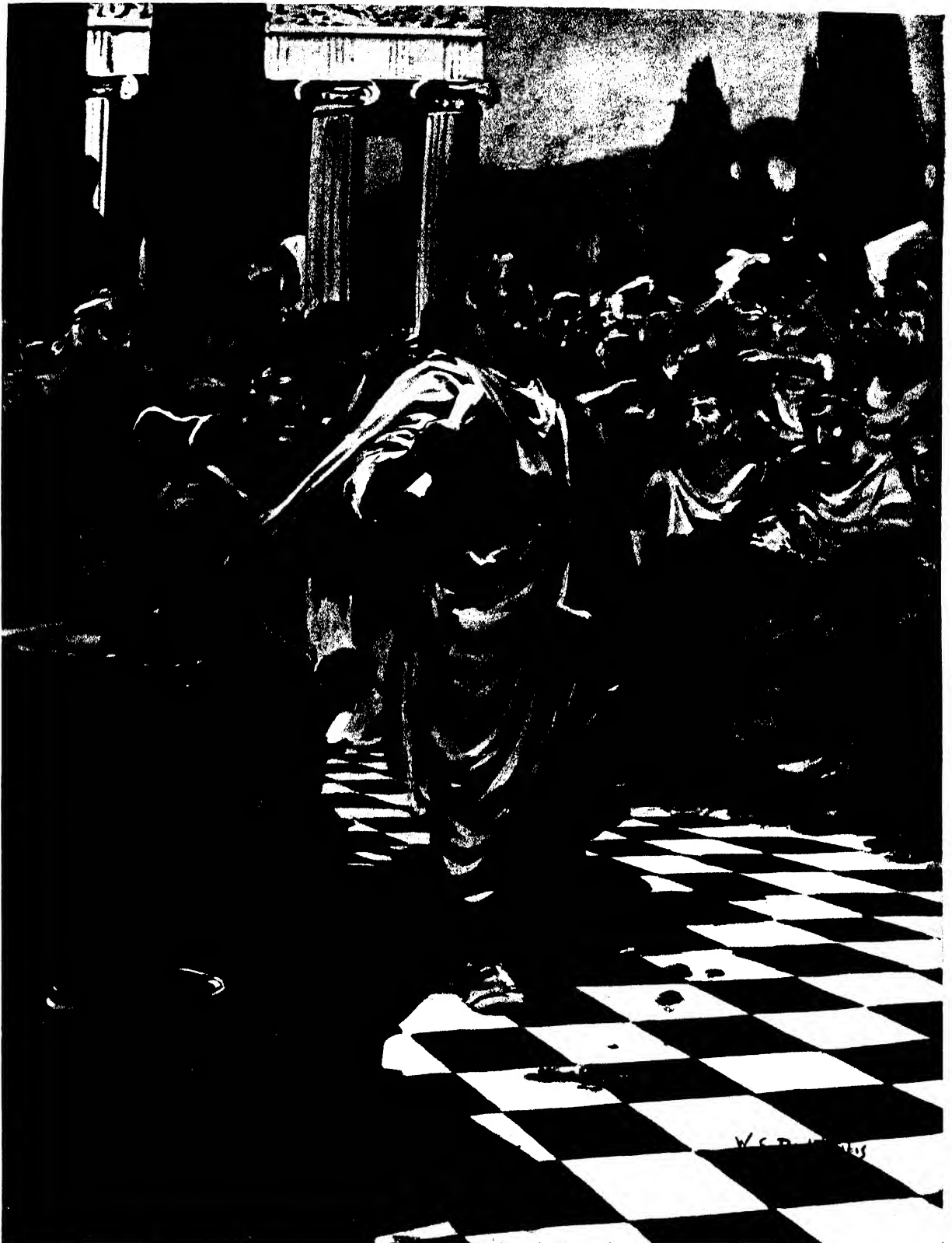
CONQUERED SOLDIERS PASSING UNDER THE YOKE.

To express symbolically the subjugation of conquered nations, the Latin races had the custom of compelling their vanquished enemies to pass under a yoke. The best-known example of this was the famous defeat of the Romans at the Caudine Forks, when their whole army suffered the humiliation of being passed under the yoke by the victorious Samnites.

entirely with the magistrates. No private citizen could make any proposal, and the assembled burgesses could do nothing but say yes or no to the projects placed before them by authority. They could not even debate, much less amend, a measure. The deliberative and amending body was the Senate. Theoretically, its consent to legislation formerly needful had been made unnecessary. In practice, until the age of the Gracchi, propositions were hardly ever put before the people until the assent of the Senate had been given. The powers of veto which the constitution gave to the magistrates were so extensive that had they been constantly exercised, legislation, and indeed government, would have been

in theory excluded, but in practice it came to be composed of all the burgesses. The summoners and presidents of the first and second of these gatherings were the highest magistrates, dictators, consuls and praetors, those of the third were the Tribunes of the Commons. A movement in the direction of equalizing the powers of the three assemblies in legislation was set on foot at the time of the Decemvirate, but only reached its goal in 287, when the "lex Hortensia" made the resolutions of all three assemblies equally binding on the community. The differences between the forms of these gatherings lay, not in their component members, but in the persons by whom they were called together and in the mode of voting. The will of the burgesses, in whatever way expressed, was made sovereign. There was no regular authority to test the question whether a law was constitutional or not, such as existed in some Greek states. The Tribunes gained a great accession of power. If all ten in any one year were of the same mind, they could propose legislation without check, and the decision of the "Concilium Plebis" was final.

But it must not be supposed that the government of Rome became an unrestricted democracy. The initiative in legislation rested



Painted especially for this work

[By W. S. Haydon]

POSTUMIUS INSULTED BY THE TARENTINES.

Lucius Postumius, at the head of an embassy to the Tarentines to demand satisfaction for their treatment of some Roman allies, was grossly insulted, his mistakes in the Greek language being received with uproarious mirth. As Postumius turned to go, a drunkard came up to him, and sullied his white robe. Turning to the Tarentines, the Roman held up the soiled garment: "Laugh now," he cried, "but this robe shall be washed in torrents of your blood."



From the painting]

AN INCORRUPTIBLE ROMAN.

[By Maccart.

Curius Dentatus, the conqueror of the Samnites, three times consul and twice honoured with a triumph, continued to live as a simple citizen. When visited by Samnite ambassadors who tried to bribe him with splendid presents, he declined, saying that he had no desire to be rich as long as he commanded those who lived in plenty.

and ineffectual, except at times of serious crisis. The whole period, therefore, is one of aristocratic predominance. The Tribunes, with their extensive constitutional privilege, ceased to be agitators, and became, as a rule, the obedient servants of the Senate. The Senate was a huge governing Committee, able to interfere at any point in the administration. Precedent and practice and the logic of facts, not express legislation, placed the Senate in this controlling position. As the offices of state were multiplied, it came more and more to be an assembly of past magistrates, and the free places to which the Censors could nominate became fewer and fewer. Finally, under Sulla (81-78 B.C.) the quaestors became twenty in number, and their office, at the bottom of the scale, gave a title to a seat, so that non-official members would have been no longer needed, but for ensuing massacres. The membership would be automatically kept up to about the number of six hundred. The success of the Senate in guiding Rome through the multitudinous perils of an era of conquest abroad and, in part, of invasion at home is one of the marvels of history.

The defeat of Pyrrhus and the conquest of southern Italy altered profoundly the relations between Rome and Carthage. There was a very ancient alliance between the two powers. The Greek historian

almost impossible. A single Tribune could nullify any resolution of the Senate, and could prevent any bill from being put to the people. And the armoury of religion offered other weapons to the obstructing magistrate. Only the extraordinary dominance of custom and precedent, which forbade the extreme use of rights, made administration possible. From 287 to 134 B.C. the practical ascendancy of the Senate was rarely questioned. The Roman fashion of democracy was therefore far different from that which prevailed at Athens and in many other Hellenic cities, where the herald asked the assembled burgesses who among them wished to speak, and any citizen might rise and perchance carry through a project amid a storm of popular passion. The influence of the great families composing the oligarchic ring of nobles was immense and comparable to that of the great Whig families in England for a century and a half after the revolution of 1688. The circle of families became more and more plebeian, for the old patricians tended rapidly to die out. The citizens at Rome could, of course, influence policy by electing magistrates to support particular leaders; but the absence of organs of public opinion, and the scattering of the citizens over a wide territory, combined with the fact that a vote could only be given in Rome itself, rendered this process uncertain

Polybius, who spent many years at Rome in close contact with Roman statesmen, and wrote the story of Roman conquest (about 130 B.C.), has preserved the memory of a treaty written in Latin so ancient as to be hard of reading and understanding. He supposed its date to be that of the first year of the Republic (509). Critics have endeavoured to reduce its age by a century and a half, but with no great success. It exhibits Rome as a trading city, and brings home to us the often forgotten fact that the rise of Rome was greatly due to commerce. Rome, in concluding the compact, spoke in the name of certain other cities in Latium. Privileges were bestowed on Romans and Latins who voyaged to Africa, to Sardinia, which was in Carthaginian possession, and Sicily, where Carthage held the western district. Doubtless similar courtesy was extended to Carthaginians in Latium. A second treaty, quoted by Polybius, was concluded in 348. It is more elaborate, and actually contemplates the possibility that Carthage might capture some city in Latium not under the control of Rome. Again, Carthage and Rome united against Pyrrhus, the Romans thus obtaining the benefit of the Carthaginian navy. When the prospects of Pyrrhus waned Rome became jealous, and took umbrage at an operation of a Carthaginian squadron at Tarentum, though it seems to have been acting within the terms of the treaty of alliance. Rome had in fact determined to become the friend of the Greeks, the age-long enemies of Carthage, and to substitute their aid at sea for that which they had hitherto enjoyed by virtue of the Punic alliance.

In Sicily Pyrrhus had for a brief space united all the Greeks against the Carthaginians, but had just failed to drive the enemy across the sea. They clung to the puissant stronghold of Lilybaeum in the west. Pyrrhus ruled with a tyrannic hand, and when he left the island in 276 to finish his quarrel with Rome his work was already falling to pieces. Before he abandoned Italy, some of his Greek allies



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE VIA APPIA.

The historian Livy has recorded that the censorship of Appius Claudius Caecus was rendered celebrated in after ages for his having brought water into the city and constructed the renowned Via Appia, which extended in the first instance from Rome to Capua. This was the earliest of the famous paved roads which, in after ages, connected Rome with her most distant provinces, constituting not only the most useful but the most lasting of all her works.

there, who had at first hailed him as a saviour, were at variance with him. He left a garrison in Tarentum, which surrendered to the Romans, because the citizens were about to betray it to a Carthaginian fleet, hovering about the harbour. Italic tribes, who had not yet made their peace, submitted to the Romans. But the Roman conquest of the peninsula was still far from complete in the north. The region of the Po, including the northern slopes of the Apennines, was in the hands of barbaric tribes, mainly Celtic, and Liguria was also unsubdued.

In 265, after long deliberation, due to the momentous nature of the issue, Rome decided to intervene in Sicily. To prepare the way, envoys were sent to Carthage, to demand an explanation of the conduct of the Carthaginian fleet at Tarentum seven years before. The very proper answer was given that it came in accordance with treaty obligation, to help in the reduction of the garrison left behind by Pyrrhus. So the Romans had to open up another avenue to war. It proved to be one which could



From the fresco by Maccari

THE ROMANS DEFY PYRRHUS.

[In the Senate House at Rome.]

After the battle of Heraclea, Pyrrhus saw that he would have great difficulty in subduing the Romans by force of arms. He therefore sent an ambassador to offer them terms of peace, which, after their recent losses, they were at first inclined to accept. But Appius Claudius Caecus, then very aged, was carried to the Senate and fiercely denounced the idea of peace, stimulating his countrymen to make the proud reply that Rome never negotiated with an enemy on Italian soil.

scarcely be traversed with decency. A body of Italic mercenaries, who had been in the service of the great Syracusan general Agathocles, had possessed themselves of the Greek city of Messana (Messina). They called themselves Mamertini, "sons of Mars." In the confusion that ensued in Sicily on the retirement of Pyrrhus, a remarkable man, Hiero, had made himself king in Syracuse, by far the greatest city of the island. He joined the Carthaginians in attacking the freebooters of Messana. Rome lent aid to these ruffians, though just before she had treated with great severity a similar gang who had seized and held for some years Regium on the other side of the straits. The Roman force was immediately successful. It acquired Messana through the weakness of a Carthaginian commander, who was crucified for his fault. The Mamertini were received into the Roman confederation. In 263 Hiero joined Rome, and remained a faithful ally till his death in 215. After this the passage of troops from Italy to Sicily was secure.

The Romans soon found that the issue of the war would be decided on the sea rather than on the land, and that they must create, not only for the defeat of the enemy, but for the protection of Italy, a



Painted specially for this work

[By W. N. Bagdatopoulos.]

THE BATTLE OF HERACLEA, B.C. 281.

War with Rome being inevitable, the Tarentines asked Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to assist them. Crossing to Italy with a large army, Pyrrhus was attacked by the Romans near Heraclea. The battle was furiously contested; seven times did the legions and the phalanx meet, and it was not till Pyrrhus brought forward his elephants, which bore down everything before them, that the Romans took to flight, leaving their camp to the conqueror.

naval force far greater than that which their allies could provide. For maritime skill they depended on their Greek friends, while they used their heavy-armed soldiers as fighters on the decks when the ships grappled with the enemy's vessels. Like the Spartans in their naval combats with the Athenians, the Romans sought at sea, so far as might be, to reproduce the conditions of warfare on land. The contest dragged on for twenty-three years (264-241), with varying fortune. Of three great naval battles during the war, the Romans were victorious in two. In one the admiral was C. Duilius, who celebrated the first naval triumph at Rome and to commemorate it raised a column decorated with the prows of captured ships (Columna Rostrata). The other victory at sea was won by C. Lutatius Catulus in 242 near the islands known as Aegates, off the north-west point of Sicily. This ended the war, in which both combatants had suffered a severe strain. At Drepanum, in 249, the Roman fleet met with a great disaster. A member of a family noted for its arrogance, P. Claudius, treated with contempt the will of heaven before the engagement. Finding that the sacred chickens would not give a favourable portent by eating their food freely, he had them thrown overboard, saying that they might drink if they would not eat. More than one Roman fleet was destroyed by storm during the war. Early in the conflict



Painted specially for this work

A STURDY ROMAN.

[By Allan Stewart.]

While Pyrrhus was in winter quarters at Tarentum, the Romans sent Fabricius to negotiate the ransom or exchange of prisoners. When the Epirot king had failed in his attempt to bribe the ambassador, an elephant, concealed by a curtain, waved its trunk over Fabricius's head. But all efforts to work on his cupidity or his fears were vain, and Pyrrhus frankly expressed his admiration for the Roman's integrity

(262) the Romans captured the important city of Agrigentum. In 250 they defeated at Panormus (Palermo) a great Carthaginian army. Gradually the Carthaginians were driven back, and for some years before the conclusion of peace, only maintained a position at Mount Eryx in the west, under the heroic leadership of Hamilcar, the father of Hannibal. An attempt by the Romans made in 256 to end the war by striking at Carthage in Africa only failed through the slackness of the home government. Regulus, the general, met at first with great success, but the main part of his force having been withdrawn, he succumbed to attacks by the Carthaginians under Xanthippus, a mercenary leader from Sparta. Later Romans loved to tell how Regulus, being dispatched by the Carthaginians to Rome in the hope that he would bring about peace, urged the Senate not to concede it, and returned to his captors. The story that he was put to death after cruel torture will not bear criticism.

Carthage lost, by the treaty of peace made in 241, her possessions in Sicily, in which she had held her ground for four centuries, and these constituted the earliest Roman province. Henceforward Italy was contrasted politically with the rest of the Roman dominions, and held a special place within them. The two privileges of the Italian allies were the absence of the special governor,



From the painting]

[By Sir L. Alma Tadema, O.M., R.A.]

A ROMAN VINTAGE FESTIVAL.

There were two kinds of vintage festivals celebrated by the Romans, the *vinalia urbana* and the *vinalia rustica*. The celebration of the *vinalia urbana*, represented in the above picture, took place on the 23rd of April. The wine-casks which had been filled the preceding autumn were opened and the contents tasted. But before the new wine could be touched various rites were observed and a libation offered to Jupiter.

allotted to each external province, and the freedom from taxation. This exemption was exceptional in the provinces, and dependent on special compacts with particular cities or tribes. Carthage had to pay a heavy war indemnity. Her autonomy was not restricted. The issue of this First Punic War was, after all, indecisive. It was clear that the duel would have to be fought afresh. Soon after the peace was made, Rome saw her enemy brought to the very brink of destruction. A mutiny of the Carthaginian mercenaries, who were a motley throng, drawn from many nations, was backed in part by the subject population in Africa, which had suffered severely from the financial strain of the war. The rebellion affected also the islands of Corsica and Sardinia, which the Romans had attacked with some success during the contest. A life-and-death struggle ensued, during which Rome officially disavowed, but secretly supported, the insurgents, and accepted the surrender of Sardinia from the garrison in 238. At the same time Corsica was acquired and, under threat of hostilities, Carthage had to acquiesce and pay an increased contribution to the Roman exchequer. The loss of these islands, and of all foothold in Sicily, wounded the Carthaginian maritime power beyond hope of recovery. So rich, however, were the resources of Carthage that the enormous payments to Rome were easily discharged, and a few years of internal peace did much to heal the cruel lacerations of the body politic. The treacherous robbery of which Rome was guilty rankled in the Carthaginian mind, but between the first and the second conflicts a period of twenty-three years intervened.

Meanwhile the power of Rome was steadily expanding. Her position in the northern part of the Italian peninsula was still weak. The Celtic settlements on the Adriatic side had at one time extended as far as the southern border of Picenum. The Celts of this region had joined the Umbrians, Etruscans and Samnites in the resistance to Rome which had ended with the great battle of Sentinum in 295. In 283 the southernmost Celtic tribe, the Senones, were partly destroyed, partly driven north. A burgess colony was then planted at Sena Gallica (Sinigaglia), whose name preserved a memory of the Celtic occupation. A few years earlier a Latin colony had been established farther south, at Hatria (Atri). The settlement of Latins at Ariminum (Rimini) in 268 was an important event. It was a great frontier defence, barring a chief route from the valley of the Po. For a considerable time Ariminum was regarded as lying outside Italy, whose boundary was the river Aesis on the east and the Arnus (Arno) on the west. Later the famous little river Rubicon on the east and the Macra on the west, in about the same latitude, marked the limits. The official boundary of Italy was not advanced to the Alps till after the death of Julius Caesar. The Gauls in these regions, particularly the powerful tribe of the Boii,

on the north-eastern side of the Apennines, gave the Romans much trouble. From 238 onwards conflicts were frequent and issued in a great Celtic war. The capture of Rome by the Gauls had implanted an abiding dread of that nation in the minds of the Romans. They called out the largest force they had ever had on foot, consisting of more than three hundred thousand men. About three-quarters of their army were on active service, the rest in reserve. Rarely afterwards was a host of such strength placed in the field, and it is a measure of the estimate which the government formed of the Celtic peril. In his recital of the contest, Polybius has incidentally preserved an account of the whole military strength of

the Italic confederation, led by Rome. It extended to eight hundred thousand men, and this did not include the contingents of those Italian Greek communities which were only bound to service on the sea.

In 225 a notable victory over a great Gaulish host was won at Telamon in Etruria, close to the mouth of the river Umbro (Ombrone). Some of the most important tribes south of the Po made their peace. For the first time in history, a Roman force crossed the Po. After hazardous fighting, it defeated the great nation of the Insubres, whose capital, Mediolanum (Milan), was taken in 223. The war ended in the following year with the capture of Comum (Como). In that year an encounter, famous ever after in song, drama and story, took place at Clastidium, now Casteggio, near Pavia. The consul Marcellus fought a duel with the Gallic leader Viridomarus, slew him and despoiled him, and thus won what the Romans called the "spolia opima," a guerdon that fell only to two other generals in their whole history. Great, therefore, was the glory of Marcellus.

Rome was now nominally sovereign over all the Celts to the south of the Alps; but the effective occupation of their country was only achieved by long-continued effort. The Romans were still far from being full masters



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Donovan, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

PYRRHUS' GARRISON AT TARENTUM.

Before Pyrrhus left Italy he put a garrison in Tarentum, but the townspeople quarrelled with Pyrrhus and plotted to betray the garrison to the Carthaginian fleet, which was in the harbour. The Romans, to whom the garrison surrendered, tried to make this a pretext for declaring war with Carthage.

in their own proper house, the Italian peninsula. The Po valley was not immune from the raids of Alpine mountaineers till the age of Augustus; nor till then was that powerful barbaric people, the Ligurians, who held the difficult mountainous region above the Italian Riviera, thoroughly subdued. A bold policy for Romanizing the north was framed by the great democratic leader, Gaius Flaminius, who, as consul, had been the first to lead an army across the Po. His schemes were resisted by the aristocratic party. Already, as tribune, in 232 he had, in the Senate's despite, pushed through a measure whereby the "Ager Gallicus," as it was still called, the land in Picenum wrested from the Gauls, was peopled by Latin-speaking settlers. And in 218 his party secured the establishment of two Latin colonies by the Po, the towns famous ever after as Placentia (Piacenza, the "pleasing town," a name selected as



By permission of]

OBJECTS OF ROMAN DOMESTIC ART.

[The British Museum.

From left to right—top row: Scissors, thimble and two typical keys; two combs; three richly ornamented pins; two early forms of the clasp knife, with carved handles. Second row: Saucepan; wooden egg whisk; strainer; spiral bracelet; bronze figure of a slave cleaning a boot; a perforated leather shoe (from the City of London); pan for baking small cakes; frying pan. Lowest row: Two knives with ornamented handles; two forms of dice; a group of surgical instruments including a saw and tweezers; a well preserved bronze lamp.



Photo by]

[H. J. Shepatone.

THE AQUEDUCT OF APPIUS CLAUDIUS.

This famous waterway, the first of its kind, was constructed early in the third century by the censor Appius Claudius Cæcus, who is also famous as the builder of the Via Appia, the first of the great Roman roads.

of good omen) and Cremona. These fortresses were of the utmost service during the ensuing Hannibalic war.

The Romans, after subduing the Greeks of Italy, had posed as Hellenophiles by driving the Carthaginians out of Sicily, so relieving the Greeks there from an ancient incubus. They were now to play to a wider Hellenic audience the rôle of champions and deliverers. The Adriatic was infested by pirates, who then, as in most ages since, used the fine opportunities presented by the indentations of the north-eastern coast and the islands that lie off it. The Greek commercial cities were the principal sufferers, but the establishment of Roman ports on the western Adriatic shore gave Rome a direct interest in suppressing the nuisance. The great port of Brundisium (Brindisi), the chief point of departure from Italy for Greece, had been occupied by Latin colonists in 244. The withdrawal from nearly all the Italic communities of the cherished right of striking silver coins, and the concentration of this coinage at Rome in 268, is a mark of growing commercial interests. The defeats of Pyrrhus and Carthage had fixed the eyes of the whole eastern Hellenic world on Rome. Direct communication had begun in some cases earlier still. Thus an understanding with the great mercantile state of Rhodes was arrived at in 306. All the Greek settlements in the eastern Adriatic, and even the coasts of Greece proper to the south, were being harassed by rovers who issued from Dalmatia. Their chief centre was Scodra (Scutari), the seat of an Illyrian monarchy, whose representative was now a queen, Teuta by name. She was attacked, conquered, and made tributary (229); while Roman interests were secured, partly by installing Demetrius, a former servant of Teuta, as prince in a portion of her territory. But Demetrius turned traitor and pirate, and in 219 he had to be suppressed. In 221 piratical associates of Demetrius in the Istrian peninsula, at the north of which is Trieste, at the south Pola, were subdued. These operations produced great exultation in Greece, and boundless flattery was heaped on the Romans, with no thought of shame for the contrast between the Hellenic past and the Hellenic present. The story had already been accepted that the Romans were descended from Homer's Trojans.

A glance must now be taken at the political history of the period between 241 and 218, when the Hannibalic war began. It should be noted that the ascendancy of the Senate had not remained altogether unchallenged. A strong democratic party existed with Flaminius as leader. He had exercised the abstract right of the Tribune to legislate (if his colleagues did not interpose their veto) without the

Senate's consent, and had pushed the policy of expansion in the north by settling Picenum (232). He had had to clear his path from obstruction, based sometimes on a misuse of religious forms which earlier generations would have condemned as impious. After the Gaulish war he had held the office of Censor, whose powers were now vastly greater than when it was first instituted. The Censors, elected every five years, but holding office for only eighteen months, enrolled the citizens in their different ranks, and could degrade men whom they deemed to have deserved it by their action in public or in private life. They constructed the roll of the Senate. They provided for the gathering in of revenue, and were great creators of public works. Flaminius laid out the great military road called "via Flaminia," which led northwards, ultimately finding its limit at Ariminum. This was the time at which the Romans proceeded to cover Italy with their magnificent highways. The first great solid military route had been the "via Appia," made by Appius Claudius, the censor of 312, from Rome to Capua, but afterwards extended to Brundisium. Another memorial of Flaminius was the "circus Flaminius" in Rome, a testimony to the increasing taste for public exhibitions, soon to become a national, and then a world-wide malady. In 219 a "lex Claudia" was passed, probably at the instigation of Flaminius, to prevent senators from engaging in operations of commerce.

At the end of the first Punic War in 241 a momentous step was taken. The number of districts, called "tribes," had been gradually increased with the progress of Rome's ascendancy, until they numbered thirty-five. The area which they covered was the "Romanus ager," the municipal domain which Rome, regarded as a municipality, possessed. This was the Roman's real country. The city and the domain were inseparably connected in the ancient civilization. Every other town in Italy had a similar territory. It was decided that this Roman municipal territory should not be any further enlarged, and for a century and a half the "Romanus ager" remained as it was. The policy adopted did not spring from



Painted specially for this work]

THE RELIEF OF THE MAMERTINES BY THE ROMANS

[By J. Finnermore, R.C.A., R.L., R.B.A.]

In 265 B.C. the Romans decided to intervene in Sicily and raise the siege of Messana, where the Mamertini, a band of mercenaries, were besieged by the Carthaginians and Syracusans. The Romans were immediately successful; the Carthaginians were driven from Messana, and Syracuse joined Rome, remaining a faithful ally for many years.

any aversion to admitting new populations within the Roman polity. Only twenty-seven years earlier, in 268, the whole Sabine people had been granted the full citizenship. But there was a widespread feeling in ancient times that the institutions of the city became unworkable if the territory were largely extended. This was natural, as the functions of civic life, in the absence of a representative system, could only be exercised by the citizen when present in the city. A wide scattering of the burgesses threw the constitution out of gear. But those possessed of the franchise continued to be dispersed more and more widely outside the "Romanus ager," and this fact, as much as any other, accounts for the ultimate downfall of the Republic, which started from municipal government, and continued to rest theoretically upon it, and naturally perished when the growth of empire made the municipal theory practically absurd. Connected with the closing of the circle of the tribes was a change in the "Comitia Centuriata," which



Painted specially for this work

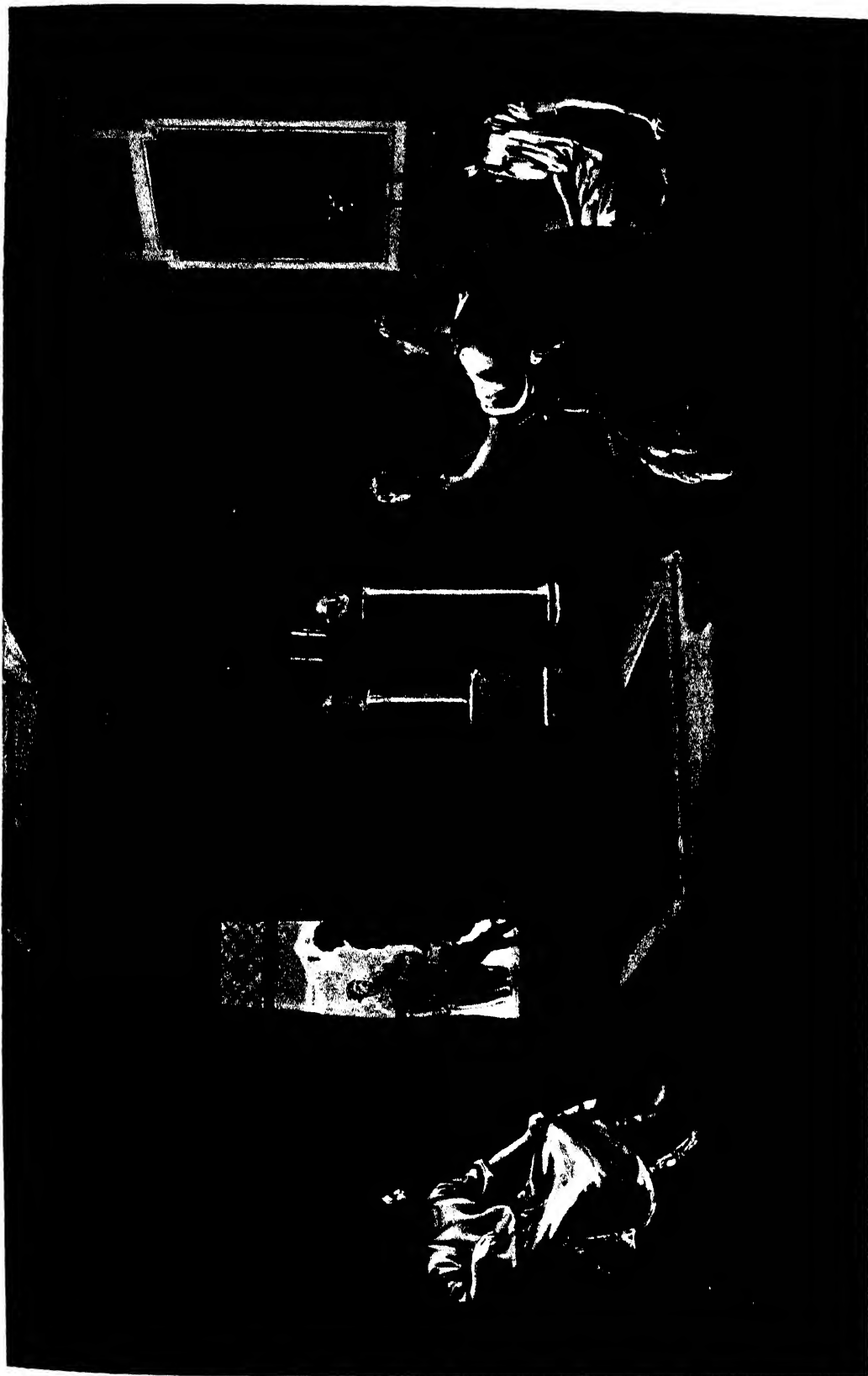
THE ROMANS BUILDING A FLEET.

[By Allan Stewart.]

The Romans saw that the issue of the struggle with Carthage would be decided on the sea, and that they must create, not only for the defeat of the enemy, but for the protection of Italy, a force of a far heavier kind than the few triremes of which their navy was composed. Legend tells that a Carthaginian quinquereme, wrecked on the Italian coast, served as a model.

was recast, so as to tone down somewhat its aristocratic tendency. While the division between senior and junior citizens was preserved and the five classes based on property were maintained, these features were combined with the enrolment by tribes, so that the ultimate vote of the assembly was no longer given by centuries, but by tribes. Another important measure passed in this age brought into existence a second praetor, the so-called "praetor peregrinus," who was specially to attend to those legal cases in which foreigners were concerned. This new office had great effect in developing and liberalizing the Roman system of law.

We have now come to the verge of that stupendous contest between Hannibal and Rome, which decided the political destiny of the whole ancient civilized world for many centuries. Although crippled in her trade by the loss of the great Mediterranean islands, Carthage had made an astonishing recovery from the wounds which the Romans and her own mercenary troops had inflicted upon her. The great Hamilcar Barca had left Sicily with a sore heart, and the bitterness engendered by Roman treachery a



Painted specially for this work.

THE INTERIOR OF A ROMAN HOUSE (c. THIRD CENTURY B.C.)

The houses of the Romans were poor and mean for many centuries after the foundation of the city. But during the Carthaginian and eastern wars, when much wealth was acquired by contest, houses of greater splendour were built. One of the most important apartments was the *atrium*, of which an illustration is here given. It was entirely roofed over with the exception of an opening in the centre, towards which the roof sloped so as to throw the rain-water into a cistern in the floor. The room was frequently ornamented with statues, columns, and other works of art, and formed a general gathering-place for the family.

[By M. Denaton, R.B.A., F.R.A.]

NAWAB SALAH JUNG BAHADUR



Photo by]

SOLUNTO, SICILY.

[Mansell & Co.

To Sicily and those parts of Italy known as Magna Graccia the Greeks brought the best of their art and culture, and Pyrrhus left a fine battlefield for the "barbarian" Romans and Carthaginians. At the end of the First Punic War (264-241 B.C.) Sicily was ceded to Rome.

south of the river was a Carthaginian sphere of influence. In 221 Hasdrubal died by the hand of an assassin. The army and the nation chose as his successor Hannibal, Hamilcar's son. He was not more than twenty-six years of age, but had been a pupil in a fine school of war ever since his father had brought him to Spain, a boy nine years old. His character has been blackened and misrepresented by Roman writers, from whom has come to us in the main the story of his life. The facts which they record often speak for him and refute them, but we cannot recover the whole truth. That hatred of Rome had been ingrained in him from his childhood we can well believe. For centuries his name was one wherewith to frighten the Roman babe. He was loathsome Hannibal, *abominatus* Hannibal, as Horace sang. He was represented as a monster of perfidy and cruelty, which he certainly was not; so far as events show, in the light of fair criticism, he was not conspicuous for vice of any kind. His power of attaching his soldiers to him has never been surpassed, and he was the foremost strategist of the ancient world, Alexander the Great not excepted. He shone as a diplomatist, was an accomplished linguist and familiar with Greek. Nothing escaped his eye, whether in the preparation for war or in its operations.

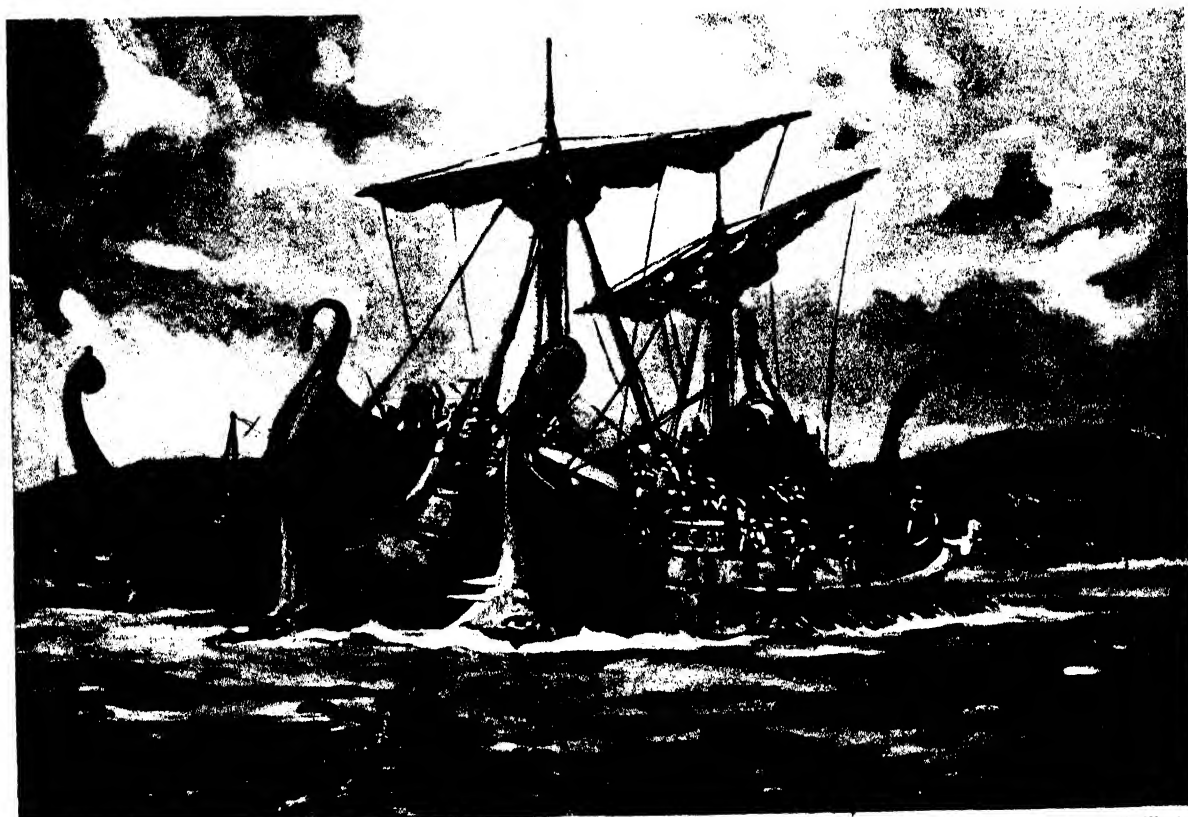
Hannibal's first care was to complete the conquest of Spain up to the banks of the Iberus (Ebro). The Iberian city of Saguntum (its alleged Greek origin is fabulous) resisted him, and at this point the Romans crossed his path. They warned him not to touch Saguntum, because it was under their protection. Mythical tales were told in later days of a complete alliance of Rome with the Saguntines, or of an undertaking by Hasdrubal (unknown to our oldest authority, Polybius) not to meddle with Saguntum and some other so-called Greek cities. The Romans were, in fact, violators of the compact to which they set their hands along with Hasdrubal. Remonstrances made by Rome at Carthage naturally came to nought, and war was inevitable. But no steps were taken to relieve Saguntum.

little later could not be borne for long. Hamilcar acquired an ascendancy over his country which is thought to have been the outcome of some constitutional change, but may only have been caused by his commanding personality. He was strong in the support of the masses against the aristocrats. Having crushed the mercenaries, he reconstituted the army and, going over to Spain, won for the Carthaginians a wide dominion there, whereby their depleted resources were repaired, partly by the exploitation of mines. The important city of New Carthage (Nova Carthago, now Cartagena) was of his establishment. He fell in battle in 229 or 228, and was succeeded by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, a matchless diplomat rather than a soldier, who extended and consolidated Hamilcar's conquests. At some time which cannot be precisely determined, the Roman government agreed with Hasdrubal that he should not cross the river Iberus (Ebro) "for purposes of war." The date usually assigned to this compact is 226, but it may have been some years later. Practically, Rome acknowledged that all the peninsula to the

Polybius tells us that a number of embassies came from the doomed city to Rome, and found no acceptance. War was announced to Carthage before Hannibal crossed the Iberus in the spring of 218 on his renowned march to Italy. Some time was spent in subduing the nations between the Iberus and the Pyrenees at considerable cost, and some resistance was encountered on the way from the Pyrenees to the Rhône. The passage of the Alps further reduced the army, so that when it debouched in the plains near the Po, its original strength of more than ninety thousand men had sunk to less than a third of that number. The whole march from New Carthage to the Po occupied five months. Hannibal's brother Hasdrubal was left in command in Spain with an adequate force.

When news reached Rome of the expedition, a contingent was sent under P. Cornelius Scipio by sea to confront Hannibal in Spain, as it was hoped. But, touching at Massilia, Scipio found himself just too late to catch his enemy at the Rhône. Hannibal escaped up the Rhône valley, and crossed the river after four days' march. Scipio sent on his force to Spain, under his brother Gnaeus, and himself hurried off to the Po, to be ready when Hannibal should descend his Alpine pass. The other consul of the year, Ti. Sempronius, had been destined for Africa. The expedition of Regulus in the earlier war had shown how vulnerable the Carthaginians were in their own land. He was now hurriedly recalled and joined Scipio near Placentia (Piacenza).

Hannibal's march over the Alps, in late autumn, was a marvel and a stimulus to the myth-making faculty in later ages. His route through the mountains has been and probably ever will be matter for controversy. The most likely pass for him to have followed is that which leads past Brigantium (Briancçon), over the Mons Matriona (Col d'Argentière) to Segusio (Susa) and Turin. He had long prepared



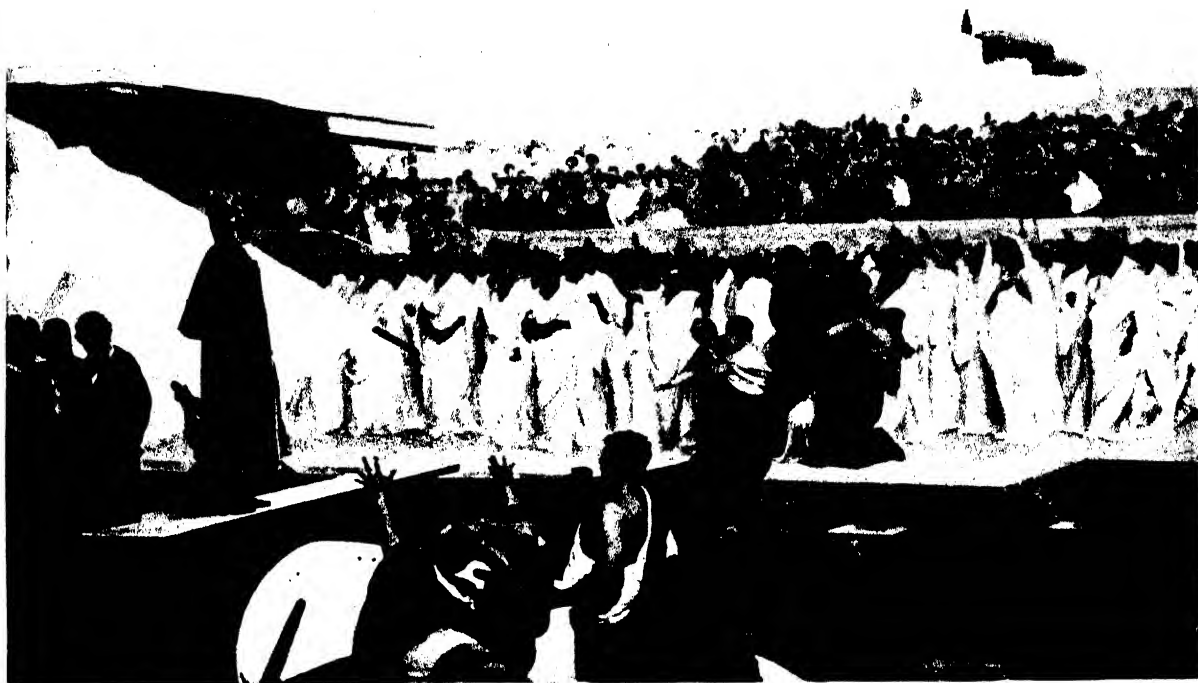
Painted specially for this work

[By W. E. Wigfull.]

THE ROMAN VICTORY AT MYLAE.

The Roman fleet under Duilius defeated the Carthaginians near Mylae, on the Sicilian coast, in 260 B.C. The Carthaginians hastened to the fight with great confidence, but the Romans, by means of their boarding-bridges, converted the battle into a hand-to-hand combat, and the Carthaginian crews were no match for the veteran soldiers of Rome. To celebrate this victory the "Columna Rostrata," adorned with the beaks of the conquered ships, was set up in the Forum.

alliances with the Celts in the basin of the Padus (Po), particularly with the great nations of the Insubres, whose centre was Mediolanum (Milan), and the Boii, whose chief towns were Mutina (Modena) and Parma. The tribes in the north-eastern direction, the Cenomani, Veneti and others, did not join him. After a brilliant cavalry victory on the Ticinus (Ticino) and a crushing defeat of the Roman army under the two consuls on the banks of the Trebia, a southern affluent of the Po, Hannibal wintered near the Po, and recruited his army. The power of Rome would have perished in the Po valley but for the strongholds at Placentia and Cremona, which were never lost throughout the war, mainly because they could be supplied by the river. The splendid Spanish and African infantry and cavalry with which Hannibal had started were greatly spent. Hereafter his army consisted in the main of forces raised in Italy. The presence in it of large numbers of Gauls, the dreaded hereditary foes of the Italic peoples, had to do with his final failure. The Romans invented or accepted a fable that his



From the fresco by Maccari]

THE RETURN OF REGULUS TO CARTHAGE.

[In the Senate House at Rome.

An attempt by the Romans in 256 B.C. to end the war by striking at Carthage was unsuccessful, and their general, Regulus, fell into the hands of the Carthaginians. Horace, in a famous ode, relates how the Roman commander was sent home in the hope that he would bring about peace, how he urged the Senate not to make any concessions, and how he returned to meet his fate in spite of the entreaties of the Senate and the people.

countrymen made little or no effort to assist him, but there is abundant evidence to evaporate this tale. Many times over, strenuous exertions were made by the home government to support the war by land and sea in and around Spain, Sardinia, Corsica, Sicily and Italy itself. It is certain that Hannibal was throughout master of the Carthaginian policy. The reinforcements which were directed to Italy were indeed few. For that he must have had his reasons. It is recorded that when a large expedition was prepared at Carthage to aid him in Italy, it was directed to Sicily by his own request. It is true that, as in the First Punic War, so in the Second, disaster persistently attended on almost every effort that was made.

Early in the year 217 Hannibal moved across the Apennines, and by a splendid stratagem caught Flaminius in a trap close to Lake Trasimenus in Etruria, and annihilated his army.

Great was the dismay at Rome when the news of the defeat arrived. As was usual when fortune raged, superstition for a while prostrated the people, and called for exceptional palliatives. The civic



Painted specially for this work

THE BATTLE OF TELAMON.

In 255 B.C. a notable victory over a great host of Gauls was won at Telamon in Etruria, close to the mouth of the river Umbrò. The two consuls hemmed in the Gauls between their respective armies, slew about 40,000 of their warriors and took about 10,000 prisoners. Some of the most important tribes south of the Po made peace, and the river was crossed by a Roman force for the first time in history. It is said that the badly-tempered weapons of the Gauls contributed largely to the Roman victory, as they continually bent after a blow, thus placing the barbarians at a disadvantage.

[By Allan Stewart.]

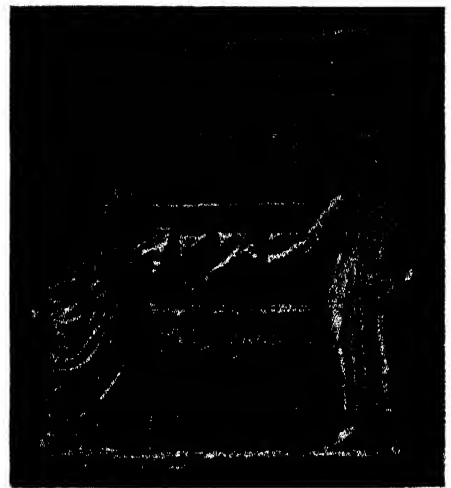


From reliefs in

A ROMAN CUTLER'S FORGE.

The methods and the costume of these artisans are clearly shown

gods seemed to have proved themselves incompetent to protect the nation. Help had to be sought from the divinities of the Greeks, with the aid of the Sibylline oracles. A recourse to these by the priests who interpreted them ended now, as always, in the introduction of some new Hellenic ritual. The public alarm was calmed in part by the nomination of a dictator by the surviving consul. This ancient office had lost some of its usefulness by



[Dresden Museum.]

A ROMAN CUTLER'S SHOP.

Sickles, bills and knives are exposed for sale.

a law passed in 301, which subjected it to the restrictions of the right of appeal (*provocatio*). It had been but little employed since. The dictator now named was the famous Q. Fabius Maximus, an old warrior, who now became known as Cunctator ("the Lingerer"), because his policy was to avoid combats in the open field, and to wear the enemy down by dogging his footsteps and seizing small opportunities as they offered. Hannibal made for the rich land of Apulia, where he spent most of the winter. He paid a tribute to the Roman military organization by equipping with Roman weapons his African regiments.

The policy of "lingering" had small success and soon became odious both to the army and to the citizens at large. The Roman force looked on while Hannibal's African horsemen laid waste the country far and wide, during a raiding excursion which he made in the rich Campanian region and farther north, in the Falernian land, famed for its vines. On his way back to Apulia Hannibal's army was imprisoned in a defile, from which it only escaped by his famed trick of driving two thousand oxen with lighted torches tied to their horns against the enemy's outposts. Had the rôles been reversed, had Hannibal been outside and Fabius inside the defile, the Roman force would have met destruction to a certainty. And one Carthaginian defeat such as the Romans suffered at Lake Trasimenus would have been fatal to Hannibal's whole enterprise. This was the most golden opportunity that came in the way of the Romans during the war, and it was missed by Fabius. No wonder that indignation rose high. It found satisfaction in one of the most singular measures, from a constitutional point of view, to be found in the Roman annals. The army believed in Minucius, the master of the horse under Fabius, and the citizens were induced, by a legislative act, to equalize his authority with that of the dictator. An inscription



A ROMAN PORK BUTCHER'S SHOP.

The similarity of the chopping-block to that in use in European countries to-day is remarkable. The butcher's wife is shown keeping the accounts on tablets.

is still preserved in which Minucius gives himself the dictator's title. But his pride had a fall. Having divided the forces with Fabius (so the somewhat suspicious tale runs), he fought an action against the old veteran's advice, was beaten and rescued, and bowed to the superiority of the Fabian policy.

The constitutional novelty of two dictators, one elected by the assembly, one nominated in the ordinary manner, is a proof among many that during the war there existed a strong democratic party, which could turn against the Senate on occasion. The measure was championed by M. Terentius Varro, who became consul for the year 216. His election shows that if Minucius was repentant, the burgesses at large were not. Varro was malignantly vilified by the annalists, as a baseborn man, and a rash leader, but evidence remains to vindicate him. It is certain that the disastrous battle which he fought at Cannae, in southern Italy, was the result of a general reaction against Fabius. Even the Senate joined in it, and gave orders that an engagement should be brought on. A Roman army of eighty thousand men was cut to pieces. Varro's aristocratic colleague perished. His memory was enshrined in myth and Varro was made his foil.

The immediate fruit of Hannibal's victory was the revolt of some of the Roman allies. On the



From the painting by]

HAMILCAR PUNISHING THE INSURGENT MERCENARIES.

[G. Surand.

Soon after the close of the First Punic War Carthage was brought to the very brink of destruction by a mutiny of her mercenary forces, backed in part by the subject population in Africa. The insurrection was finally quelled by Hamilcar, but not before Carthage had lost Corsica and Sardinia, whose rebellious garrisons surrendered the islands to the Romans.

whole, the great Italian confederation withstood the shock well. Secessions were confined to southern Italy, mostly to the extreme south in Lucania, Bruttium and among the Greek cities, in the region in fact where Hannibal spent the greater part of his time. In the later years of the war, his forces largely consisted of Bruttians and Lucanians. Hannibal was exceedingly unsuccessful in his assaults on walled towns. For a long time he failed to secure any seaport, which would have enabled him to keep open his communications with Carthage.

The first great city to revolt was Capua in Campania, with some towns dependent on it. Hannibal resorted to this land, the richest in Italy, thinking that (in the words of Polybius) it would be for him a theatre in which he might "out-stage" the Romans and win over the great Italian audience. For four years (215-211) Capua, the greatest city in the peninsula after Rome, held out, but in the end nothing was gained for the Carthaginians. The enthusiasm of the Campanians for their cause soon waned. Nola, the strongest fortress in the region, resisted all the attacks of Hannibal's forces. Attempts on

his part to seize Naples and other seaports failed. There were frequent indecisive fights, mostly round Nola. The chief Roman commander was M. Claudius Marcellus, the hero of Clastidium. Great tales were told by later Romans of defeats inflicted by him on Hannibal. But Polybius reveals that the great commander never once suffered a reverse during his sixteen campaigns in Italy. Still, it is true that, as an ancient writer said, Marcellus "taught the Romans how not to be conquered."

The death of Hiero, the aged ruler of Syracuse and staunch friend of Rome, in 215 brought about a revolution in Sicily. It was largely caused by the desire of the Syracusans for the restoration of the old Greek ideal of civic liberty. But monarchical conspiracies led to internal discord. Hannibal sent two able officers of Greek descent to draw profit for him out of the imbroglio. At this time a large Carthaginian force destined for Italy was drawn aside by the hope of capturing Sardinia, and was utterly



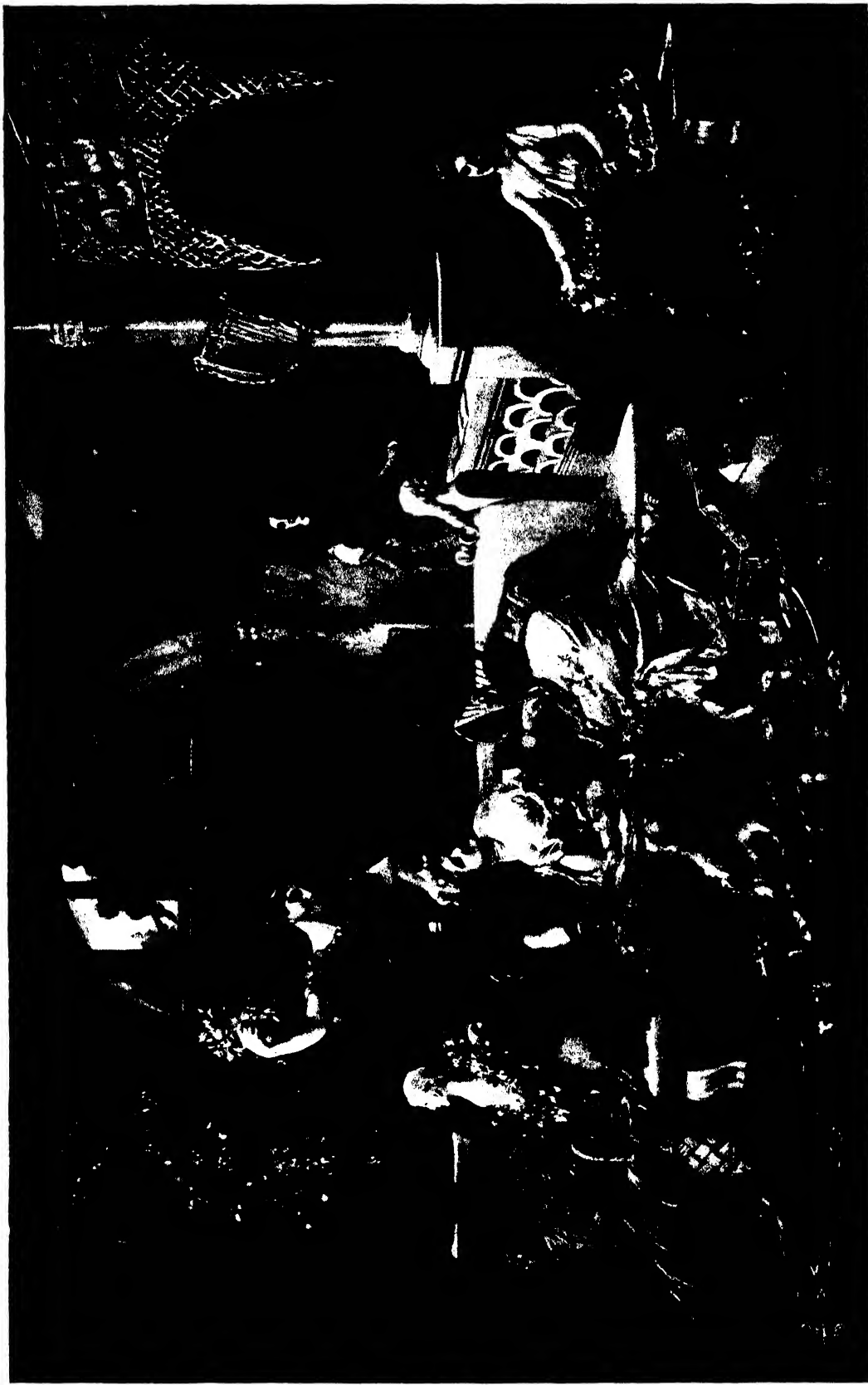
Painted specially for this work

A RAID OF ILLYRIAN PIRATES

[By H. M. Burton.]

The Illyrians, who dwelt on the north-east coast of the Adriatic, were a nation of pirates, and ravaged both the Greek and Latin coasts of that sea. In 229 B.C. the Romans determined on their suppression, and a Roman army crossed the Adriatic for the first time in history.

wasted. The small Roman army in Sicily was unable to deal with the situation there, and Marcellus was dispatched with fresh troops. He set to work to besiege Syracuse, but the siege, or rather the blockade, lasted for two years. The soul of the defence was the great Greek mathematician and mechanician, Archimedes, about whose devices for keeping the Romans at bay marvels were recounted in after times. But all Sicily was involved in the contest, and the island was devastated in every part. A Carthaginian force of twenty-five thousand infantry and three thousand cavalry, with twelve elephants, was landed, having been sent to Sicily rather than to Italy at the express request of Hannibal himself. At the same time a strong Punic fleet was sent into Sicilian waters. The Carthaginians had a magnificent opportunity, but there were no commanders who could avail themselves of it, though the Romans (Marcellus approving) played into their hands by deliberate massacres, which inflamed the Greek population against them. In 212 Syracuse surrendered and was savagely treated by Marcellus. All Hellas



By permission of Louis Wolff & Co. Ltd., London, W.

THE FESTIVAL OF FLORA.

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the large engraving.]

The Floralia, originally festivals of the country people without any distinct connection with any particular divinity, were celebrated throughout all Italy. In 173 B.C. the festival, which had fallen into disuse, was restored in honour of Flora, or Chloris, in consequence of severe weather which had injured the blossoms. In the towns the festival (28th of April—2nd of May) was carried on with excessive merriment, drinking and games.

wailed over the spoliation of the city, whose precious art treasures were taken to Rome. This was the first of a long series of robberies practised by Romans against Greek cities during many ages. Marcellus was the first Roman leader of a new type. Between him and Fabius a deep gulf lay, between the man of Republican simplicity and obedience and reverence for the past of Rome, and the man who aimed at personal ascendancy without regard to tradition, and was fascinated by Greek culture. When in 210 it was proposed to send Marcellus back to Sicily, still seething with unrest, the bitter complaints of the Sicilians so affected public opinion at Rome that his commission had to be cancelled. It was felt that his high-handed rule in the island had made a serious breach with ancestral custom, and had added enormously to the difficulties of the government. Two years later he was killed in southern Italy. He is the most over-praised general in the whole Roman annals. Hannibal described him as a good soldier, but a bad commander.

A long, lingering conflict was meanwhile being carried on in Spain. The events have been badly recorded, and are encumbered with fable. After a chequered career, the two brothers Scipio were killed and their forces shattered in 212. Soon after, P. Cornelius Scipio, son of the consul of 218, was chosen at the almost unprecedentedly early age of twenty-four to succeed his father and his uncle. Partly owing to dissensions between Hasdrubal, Hannibal's brother, and two other Carthaginian generals, partly to the abandonment of the wise conciliatory policy which had won for Carthage her dominance in Spain, Scipio's success was rapid. He soon got possession of the great arsenal and centre of Carthaginian government, Nova Carthago (Cartagena). By 206 all Spain was won. But a year before that, Hasdrubal had slipped past the Roman army on his way to Italy. Scipio returned to Rome with a high reputation, to enjoy a splendid triumph.



Painted specially for this work

THE FOUNDATION OF PLACENTIA

[By J. H. Valda.]

In 218 B.C. the democratic party under Gaius Flaminius secured the establishment of two Latin colonies, Placentia and Cremona, in the neighbourhood of the Po. These fortresses were of great service during the ensuing Hannibalic war; the famous Placentia (Piacenza), which was built on the banks of the river Ticinus, enjoyed everlasting fame for never surrendering to the Carthaginians.



By permission of L. H. Leferre & Son, London.

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the original engraving.]

A DEDICATION TO BACCHUS.

The worship of Dionysus, whom the Romans called Bacchus, was celebrated in various ways. In 186 B.C. the Senate forbade anyone to be initiated into the Bacchic mysteries, which had become the scenes of every description of vice. The Liberalia, at which Roman youths who had reached their 16th year received the toga virilis, were continued. Priests and priestesses, adorned with garlands of ivy, carried through the city wine, honey, cakes, and sweetmeats, with an altar on which, from time to time, offerings were burnt.

After the battle of Cannae an alliance was made between Hannibal and Philip V., king of Macedon, a man of marked ability, which uncontrolled passion often made of no effect. The occupation by Rome of posts on the eastern side of the Adriatic had given him a grievance, for it was his ambition to extend his dominions westward to the sea. Rome employed only just so much force against him as sufficed to encourage his enemies to keep him fully employed in Greece. The Romans were for the first time brought into direct political relations with a number of powers in the eastern Mediterranean.

After the abandonment of Capua in 211, Hannibal made his celebrated march to within three miles of the walls of Rome. But it was a mere military parade. Great terror was caused, but no attempt was made to capture a single strong position on the route. After a very few days he retired again to the south. Many a time after Cannae he took the Romans unawares and inflicted severe loss upon them. But he was gradually confined to a narrower and narrower area, as the towns of which he had possessed himself were won back by the Romans. For several years before he left Italy he was practically restricted to Bruttium, the south-west corner of the peninsula. Two very great blows must have taken away from him his last hope. In 212 Tarentum, one of the greatest cities of the Hellenic world, had come over to him. The revolt was caused by the execution at Rome of a number of Greek hostages who had tried to escape. For this impolitic act, which aroused indignation in the Greek world, the Romans were severely punished. The citadel of Tarentum, however, remained in Roman hands. In 209 Hannibal lost this important seaport. Two years later, in 207, his brother Hasdrubal marched from Spain to succour him, with a strong force, only to meet crushing defeat and death on the banks of the river Metaurus, which enters the sea about midway between Ariminum (Rimini) and Sena Gallica (Sinigaglia). The calamity is said to have been made known to Hannibal by flinging his brother's head into the Carthaginian camp. Hasdrubal's expedition was not the last attempt to relieve Hannibal. Another of his brothers, Mago, coming by sea from Spain, in 205, with an army of fourteen thousand men, captured Genua (Genoa), and called to arms against Rome many tribes of Gauls and Ligurians. The movement gave much trouble, but Mago was never able to march south. In 203 he was heavily defeated. At the same time he was recalled to Africa, to aid in its defence, but died of a wound on the voyage. An officer whom he left behind, Hamilcar by name, continued to organize the northern barbarians against Rome, until he fell two years after peace had been concluded between Carthage and Rome.

The strain of the war on Roman resources had been very great. Even in 216 the difficulty of raising troops began to be serious. Boys under age, imprisoned debtors, even many thousands of slaves, were pressed into the ranks. Considering the account preserved by Polybius of the levy which the Italic confederation could supply, it is not easy to understand the extremity of the stress, even after full allowance has been made for losses and for the revolted allies. Possibly the government did not dare to make upon the allies the full demands justified by the treaties. Money and supplies were found with great difficulty. Many parts of the country had been devastated over and over again. Men of property were repeatedly required to find and pay sailors for the fleet. Contractors worked on credit, some of the Roman national land being pledged to them for security. It is not surprising that in 209, twelve of



Painted specially for this work

THE FALL OF SAGUNTUM.

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

Hannibal, in furtherance of the designs of his father, Hamilcar, subdued all the cities south of the Ebro. Saguntum, an independent city under the protection of Rome, resisted the Carthaginians for eight months. The Romans made this a pretext for demanding compensation, which was refused, and the Second Punic War broke out.

the Latin colonies declared themselves exhausted and unable to meet their obligations. The government called this rebellion but inflicted no punishment at the moment.

Scipio came back from Spain determined to carry an army over to Africa and end the war there. This sound policy had been in the minds of statesmen at the beginning of the contest. Now the senators, headed by the venerable Fabius, offered a determined opposition. Scipio could only compass his end by appealing in the style of a demagogue to the people. He was elected consul by acclamation, to hold office in 204, though not fully qualified, and the Senate was obliged to give him Sicily as his province, with a grudging permission to cross over to Africa if he thought fit. But money and supplies were denied him, and the troops in Sicily were insufficient for his purpose. He had to rely largely on volunteers whom his fame attracted and on freewill offerings from towns and peoples in Etruria, Umbria, the Sabine country, and other communities near them. He started with a very small force and an inadequate fleet. While he was on his way his career was nearly brought to an untimely end. He



Ceres, the goddess of agriculture, to whom the rites appropriate to Demeter were also paid.



Jupiter, the chief deity of the Roman state, the sky god, later identified with Zeus.



Bacchus, the god of wine (Dionysus) with whom the Romans identified Liber.



Diana, the goddess of the moon, presided over the chase, later identified with Artemis.



Saturn, a god of agriculture, later identified with Cronus, whose reign was thought to have been the Golden Age.



Mercury, the god of merchandise, later identified with Hermes.



Venus, the goddess of beauty and growth in nature, later identified with Aphrodite.



From the painting]

HANNIBAL CROSSING THE RHONE.

[By Henri Motte.

During Hannibal's march from Spain to Italy he found that the Gallic tribes as far as the Rhone were favourably disposed to him. He was able, therefore, to make rapid progress, and when Scipio landed at Massilia (Marseilles) to intercept him, he found that the Carthaginian army was in advance of him. Hannibal effected his passage across the Rhone three days before Scipio arrived on its left bank.

countenanced a series of abominable outrages committed in southern Italy by one of his officers, named Pleminius. As in the case of Sicily, this treatment of subject people aroused great resentment among the Roman burgesses. A commission was sent out to investigate, with authority to drag Scipio back to Rome. He somehow escaped the danger, and was able with difficulty to secure the prolongation of his authority for the years 203 and 202, when the war ended. His forces meantime had been increased. But they were still insufficient, so that time and much good fortune were needed for his ultimate success. He had found potent allies in two Numidian princes, Syphax and Masinissa, but Syphax deserted him before long. For some time he could not make much impression on the inland country. In the winter season he suddenly fell upon the Carthaginian camp, and fired the straw huts in which the soldiers were housed. A great slaughter ensued, and another Carthaginian defeat, five days' march from the sea, brought about negotiations for peace, which failed. In 203 Hannibal was recalled to Carthage. Whatever misfortunes might befall him, he never lost the confidence of his fellow-countrymen, but continued to be their first of men until the jealous Romans drove him into exile in 195. His coming revived the Carthaginians, and they broke off from a peace which was all but concluded. Hannibal did try a further parley, but in vain. In 202 he suffered the great final defeat at Zama, near the border of Algeria and Tunis. There his army was destroyed.

Scipio was eager to make peace, because there was danger that he might be superseded and deprived of the credit of finishing this mighty contest. A heavy money contribution, payable in annual instalments, spread over fifty years, was imposed upon Carthage. Her fleet was practically put out of existence. The most galling condition was that she was interdicted from making war either inside or outside Africa, without Rome's permission. Thus ended her long career as a great Mediterranean power. Rome annexed no territory in Africa. Her experience in governing turbulent peoples in northern Italy, Sardinia, Corsica and Spain had made further annexation unattractive for the time being.

Scipio's home-coming and triumph were now even more magnificent than when he returned from Africa. He was the idol of the people, but the majority of the Senate still hated him. He and the rest of the governing class showed but little statesmanship where much was demanded by the situation of the country, bleeding as it was from the ghastly wounds dealt it by the war. It cried aloud for peace, but peace it was not permitted to enjoy. The thirst for glory had seized on the aristocrats and a second war against Macedon was planned as soon as that with Carthage had ended. The burgesses showed their good sense by rejecting unanimously the proposal when it was laid before them. The condition of Macedon and Greece made the idea of danger to Italy from that quarter a pure chimera. In order to bring about the conflict, the Senate was compelled to release from military service all who had taken part in the late war. The distant and perilous expedition was entered upon with raw recruits and volunteers.

The Second Punic or Hannibalic War marks a great dividing line in Roman history. In some parts of Italy the ravages of the conflict, particularly in the south, were never altogether repaired. Rome was now definitely launched on a career of conquest which ran its course during more than two centuries. For the first seventy years, till the advent of the Gracchi, such political storms as there were, concerned persons rather than policies. War absorbed the energy of all classes alike. The army, formerly a militia, became professional and subservient to brilliant generals, a change which involved the ultimate doom of the Republic, and issued in the mastery of the soldier over the Empire which replaced it. Military service divorced the Italian peasant from the soil and favoured the creation of vast estates, worked by means of slaves whom conquest poured into the peninsula in great masses. The problem of providing



Painted specially for this work

[By Ernest Prater.]

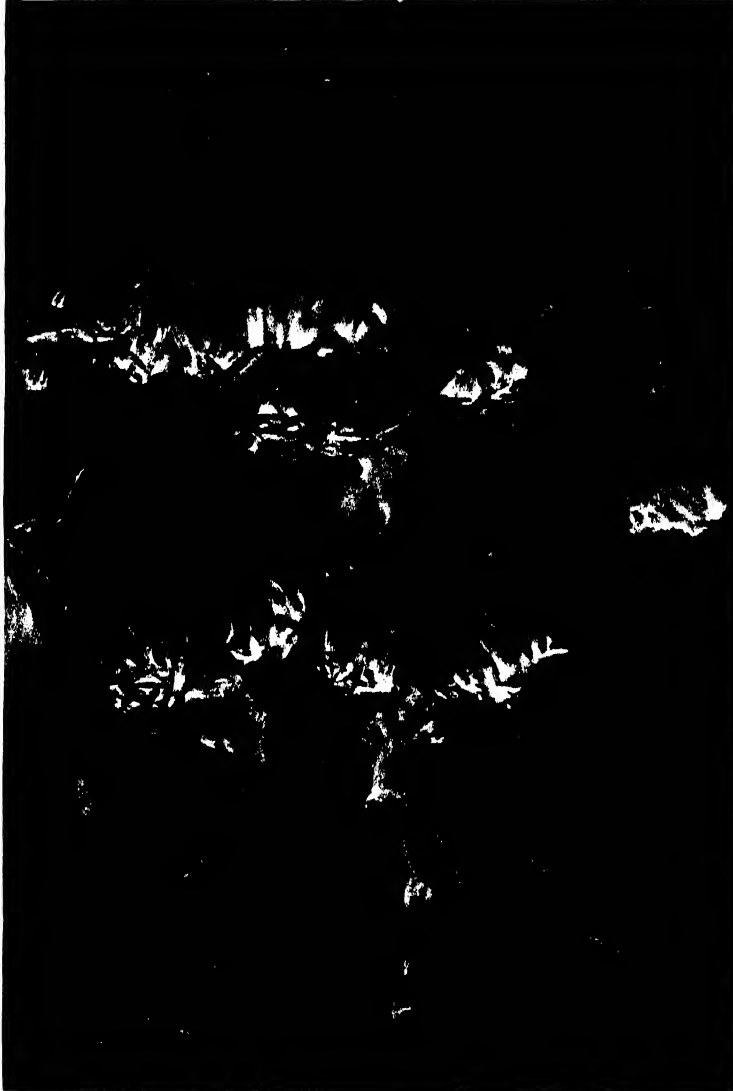
THE BATTLE OF LAKE TRASIMENUS, 217 B.C.

The Roman army under Flaminius, following on the track of Hannibal, fell into a snare. The soldiers found themselves in a defile, both sides of which were lined by Hannibal's light troops. One end was barred by Lake Trasimene, and the Carthaginian infantry quickly occupied the other. The consul and thousands of his soldiers were killed, thousands more perished in the lake, and 15,000 prisoners fell into the hands of Hannibal.

for the veteran soldier became acute. The endeavour was constantly made to return him to the soil, but it rarely succeeded. The "colony" had been hitherto a military institution; it now became economic. Within forty years after the conclusion of the war seventeen burgess colonies were founded for the relief of the old soldiers, on land confiscated from communities which had joined the foe, and had to take their punishment. Then the series of burgess colonies ended for a time. The line of Latin

colonies also came to an end about twenty years after the war was concluded. The old Roman manners at this period were being changed by the corrupting inflow of foreign elements and the growth of wealth. Greek influences transformed religion and education, and created a literature in Latin, which began with Naevius, Ennius and Plautus.

The Second Macedonian War, entered upon all too lightly, hung fire for a long time, until a remarkable man, T. Quinctius Flaminius, came to the front and won the great victory of Cynoscephalae in 197, when the famed Macedonian phalanx failed before the onset of the Roman legionaries. When negotiations for peace began, the enemies of Philip clamoured for his total destruction. Flaminius truly claimed that it was contrary to the ancient practice of the Romans to press cruelly on a beaten foe, and that the kingdom of Macedon was a necessary bulwark to secure the safety of Greece against the northern barbarians. The main principle of Flaminius was that all Greek communities which had been held in subjection by Philip and his friends should be free and autonomous. When this was announced at the great Isthmian games in 196, the throng of Greeks could hardly trust their ears. As it was realized that all Roman troops would be withdrawn, even from the three great fortresses which had been garrisoned by Macedon and were known as the "fettters of Greece," a mighty



Painted specially for this work

[By Allan Stewart.]

HANNIBAL'S RUSE TO PASS FABIUS.

After the disaster of Lake Trasimene Quintus Fabius Maximus, the "Cunctator," took command of the army. He occupied the mountain passes through which Hannibal had to march. The Carthaginians escaped from the trap by tying torches to 2,000 head of cattle and driving them against the Roman outposts, causing their hasty retirement.

shout went up, so mighty, it was said, that flocks of birds flying overhead fell dead to the ground. The power of the king of Macedon was restricted within its proper boundaries, and he became the ally of Rome; that is to say, his foreign policy became of necessity that of Rome. He was interdicted from maintaining a fleet and had to pay an indemnity. The settlement of affairs was vastly complicated. Flaminius, with the aid of ten senators sent, as usual in such cases, from the capital, had to define the status of a great number of commonwealths and tribes. Troubles in Greece, especially



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

ORIENTAL SUPERSTITIONS IN ROME.

Towards the end of the Republic Rome was invaded by all kinds of Eastern cults and superstitions. Already in 220 B.C. there was in the city a temple of the Egyptian god Serapis. The Senate ordered it to be demolished. As no workman dared to touch it the consul himself was obliged to come and beat down the door with an axe.



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

HANNIBAL HEARS OF HIS BROTHER'S DEATH.

After the defeat of the Carthaginians at Metaurus in 207 B.C. the head of Hannibal's brother Hasdrubal, who fell in the battle, was carried to Apulia by the Romans and thrown into the Carthaginian camp. "I recognize," said Hannibal sadly, "the doom of Carthage."

Sardinians and Corsicans, and thousands of soldiers were annually expended with but small results. It was soon found that a conflict with the Aetolians and with Antiochus was not to be avoided. Driven from Carthage by the Romans, Hannibal was now in the service of the Syrian king, who failed either to use his capacity or to trust him. By 192 it was clear that the Aetolians would succeed in persuading Antiochus to join them in making war on Rome. A commission of which Flamininus was a member went to Greece and Asia Minor, to secure allies. They were sure of the Achaeans, who would act on their old motive of antipathy to the Aetolians. Philip, too, had no reason to love either the Aetolians or Antiochus, and responded to the call. The king of Pergamum found himself in the unusual position of acting along with the king of Macedon. The strong mercantile state, Rhodes, took the same side. Before the end of 192 Antiochus came over to Greece with a small contingent, and by great good fortune seized the strong fortress of Chalcis in Euboea, where he wintered, and received the adhesion of the Boeotians and one or two other peoples. In the spring a formidable Roman army came over to Greece, and a Roman fleet appeared in Greek waters. Antiochus was utterly beaten by land and sea. Flamininus constantly intervened to restrain the savage vengeance which the Roman commanders wished to wreak on Greek cities. In 190 the cause of Antiochus went from bad to worse. The brother of Scipio Africanus was in command, but his course was guided by the great Africanus himself, though nominally a subordinate officer. It was a momentous event when the Roman army crossed the Bosphorus and marched for Syria. Finally Antiochus accepted battle in the open field near

in connection with Sparta, now under a cruel despot, kept Flamininus from retiring till 194, when he enjoyed a brilliant triumph. The arrangements made had deeply offended the Aetolians, who were no friends of liberty, excepting of such liberty as enabled them to oppress others. The Romans even issued orders to powers in Asia Minor, particularly to Antiochus, king of Syria. The policy of Flamininus was, of course, popular all over the Greek East. The passion for the autonomy of each civic commonwealth still burned fiercely in the Greek heart as of yore, in spite of the lessons of the past, which had shown that a narrow view of freedom had been the ruin of the Hellenes. The policy of the Romans naturally was, as they themselves expressed it, to divide and so to rule.

Rome became now the arbiter of the cities and potentates of the eastern Mediterranean lands. Envoys incessantly came to Rome to invoke her interference, and envoys frequently went from Rome to speak the language of counsel or command. This condition of affairs was harassing to all those who were affected by it, and could not last. The Senate was naturally averse to entering on a fresh war, as strenuous military efforts were continually demanded for the subjugation of the Gauls and Ligurians in Italy and of the Spaniards and

Magnesia, close to the river Hermus and Mount Sipylus. The motley host of the king was scattered at a breath and nearly annihilated, while few on the Roman side fell.

Before the final issue Antiochus had attempted to obtain terms, and had offered to liberate a number of the principal Greek cities in his dominions. He was now compelled to abandon all his possessions to the west of the Taurus range, including important posts held in Europe, on the Hellespont and elsewhere, and a great indemnity in money was exacted.

The Roman success had been swift and decisive. The fleet, drawn largely from Rhodes as well as from Italy, had played a conspicuous part, and it may be noted that in all subsequent wars fought by the Romans in the eastern Mediterranean the operations by sea were of the first importance. The evil of piracy, chronic in the Levant, gave much trouble in the Syrian and also in the later wars. The victory of Rome was powerfully aided by the presence of Flamininus in Greece. His personality and his sound policy prevented any widespread combination there against Rome. In the large and complicated settlement which followed on the Syrian war, the principle of liberating cities was adopted as before. Two important allies of Rome, Rhodes and Pergamum, benefited greatly by the new dispositions, but Philip gained nothing, and nursed his wrath. The Aetolians were left in a miserable plight.

Pending the completion of the vast and varied negotiations which the peace made needful, a new commander, Manlius, was sent to Asia. Being all athirst for glory, he went to seek it beyond the Syrian frontier, and attacked Galatia, the land of those Gauls who had settled in Asia during the third century



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

FIRING THE CARTHAGINIAN CAMP.

Scipio, sent over to Africa to carry the war into the enemy's territory, was unable for some time to make any impression on the inland country. But in the winter season he suddenly fell upon the Carthaginian camp and fired the huts in which the soldiers were housed. This disaster caused the Carthaginians to begin negotiations for peace.

B.C., after having plundered northern Greece on their way. The action of Manlius in making war without public sanction was unparalleled. The war was really brigandage on a huge scale, but it was popular with the Greek cities, which dreaded the Gauls. When the elaborate treaty in which the affairs of all concerned in the war were regulated, was concluded in 188, Manlius began his journey homeward. The discipline of the army was bad, and on its disorderly march through Thrace it suffered ignominy and loss by attacks of the wild tribesmen there. Not till the end of the summer did it struggle through to the coast of the Adriatic, where it was compelled to winter. Manlius was allowed his triumph in spite of determined denunciations of his lawlessness. Demoralization in the circle of the aristocracy was making rapid progress. Later moralists dated the beginning of a passion for luxury and the decay of old Roman simplicity from the home-coming of the soldiers of Manlius, laden with plunder from Asia.



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

THE BATTLE OF ZAMA.

In 203 B.C. Hannibal was recalled to Carthage, and his countrymen broke off a peace which was all but concluded. But he was completely defeated in 202 at Zama, being deficient in cavalry, which had previously been the strongest arm of his forces. His elephants were rendered useless by the manoeuvres of the Romans, and the Carthaginian army was utterly destroyed.

It was in this age that the corruption of public men began to be a crying evil. A series of scandals led up to a sensational attack upon the two Scipios for misappropriation of state money during the time of the war with Antiochus. The dispute ended in the eclipse of Scipio Africanus and his death in deep retirement in 184. No sentence was actually pronounced by the assembled citizens, but the man who had a few years before been the idol of the people could not now face the storm. His rival Hannibal, near the same time, had been driven to his end by persistent Roman persecution. It is not pleasant to read that Flaminius was an agent in this iniquity. The famous M. Porcius Cato, known as the "Censor" to distinguish him from the Cato who was the enemy of Julius Caesar, was the instigator of the attack on the Scipios. He was a stout old soldier himself, who had fought under others in Greece and Africa, and as consul in 195 had distinguished himself in Spain. He lived at Rome in perpetual strife, prosecuting evil-doers in high station, and suffering retaliation himself at their hands. As censor in 184, which he won against Lucius Scipio, he used



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]

THE TRIUMPH OF SCIPIO AFRICANUS.

On Scipio's return home from Africa he was received by the people with the greatest marks of favour. The objects that were carried in his triumphal procession represented clearly to the citizens the dangers from which they had escaped. In ecstasies of joy they filled the streets, pouring out thanks to the gods and acknowledgments to the author of so great a deliverance. Scipio was now the idol of the people, although the majority of the Senate still hated him.



HANNIBAL'S ROUTE TO ITALY, 218 B.C.

The fully tinted area indicates the country directly under Roman control. Roman influence is shown by a tinted boundary.

all the large powers which the office had acquired to check luxury and to punish departures from the ancient Roman standard of morals. He was a great inquirer into the history and antiquities, not only of Rome, but of all Italy. His treatise on agriculture, which has come down to us, sets before us the hard narrow life of a rugged Roman farmer, for whom slaves are implements, to be used with just the amount of care given to the plough and the harrow, so as not to wear them out too soon. Cato's triumph over the Scipios did not avail to stem the new tide, and his life ended in evil times.

Philip of Macedon died in 179, still kicking impotently against the pricks applied by fate, and full of remorse for the murder of a son, committed through jealousy. His successor Perseus gave the Romans anxiety from the first, not so much by encroachments as because he proved himself a sober-minded, laborious and popular king. In 171 war was declared against Perseus. No special acts of the king justified this course. As he said in a conference after the war began, what he did or did not do was of little moment; the Romans had made up their minds to crush him. Warned by their ill-success in the Second Macedonian War, the Romans sent out a large force, fifty thousand men at least, equipped with more than usual care. But the incompetence of the Roman commanders in the first two years, along with the wanton outrages which they countenanced, caused the war to drag. The Epirotes were irritated into revolt, and under the smart of maltreatment, discontent began to spread, till there seemed to be danger of a large coalition against the Romans. The Illyrians, though old enemies of Macedon, now allied themselves with the king. By the end of 169, the balance of success lay markedly with Perseus.

A change came over the scene in the following year, when L. Aemilius Paulus arrived as commander, with reinforcements. Perseus had fortified an almost impregnable position at Pydna, between the mountains and the sea. Paulus often said in after-life that he greatly dreaded the appearance of the Macedonian lines. But a turning movement led to a speedy and complete victory at little cost. In two days all Macedonia surrendered to Paulus. The Roman victory had a magical effect all over the East. Paulus was continued in command, so that with the aid of the usual senatorial commissioners he might settle the peace, with all the political problems that the war had occasioned.

An end was put to the Macedonian monarchy. On the whole, it had lived with glory and died with dignity. The country was split up into four self-governing districts, which were isolated from each other. The rights of intermarriage and of community of law were interdicted to the four states, and a moderate tribute was imposed. The Macedonians did not suffer alone. A reign of terror was established throughout Greece by the ostracism in every city of those who had sympathized or were alleged to have sympathized with Perseus. A thousand leading men of the Achaean league were transported to Rome, among them the historian Polybius, still young, but already distinguished, like his father, as soldier and statesman. The fate of the Rhodians was hard and humiliating. They were old enemies of Macedon, but the savagery of the Roman army had produced a revulsion of feeling, as indeed was the case all over Hellas. They had excited Roman indignation by trying to arbitrate between the two contending powers. They were now stripped of nearly all their large possessions on the Asiatic continent, and their trade was undermined by the establishment of a free port at the island of Delos. A Rhodian orator stated that the revenue of his country was reduced to one-sixth of what it had been. Macedonia was evacuated at the end of 167. On his way home Paulus carried out one of the worst political crimes in the long Roman roll of such. Seventy cities in Epirus were plundered, their walls razed, and one hundred and seventy thousand Epirotes were sold into slavery. As Plutarch, his biographer, remarked, the action of Paulus is out of keeping with all else that is known of his life. Doubtless he acted upon orders. That Paulus had restrained so far as he could the licence of his army was shown when he returned to Rome and claimed a triumph. He nearly lost it because of the resentment of the troops against his moderation. Two generations had sufficed to bring about a sweeping change in the old civic army of Rome. Fighting was now a trade, only to be made popular by rendering it profitable. The wealth which Paulus was able to pour into the treasury enabled the Romans to discontinue the old tax on property, the "tributum," which citizens had had to pay from early times.

In the first half of the second century B.C. there was much fighting in the West. The Ligurians were often raided, and there was frequent commotion among the tribes of northern Italy. Expeditions had

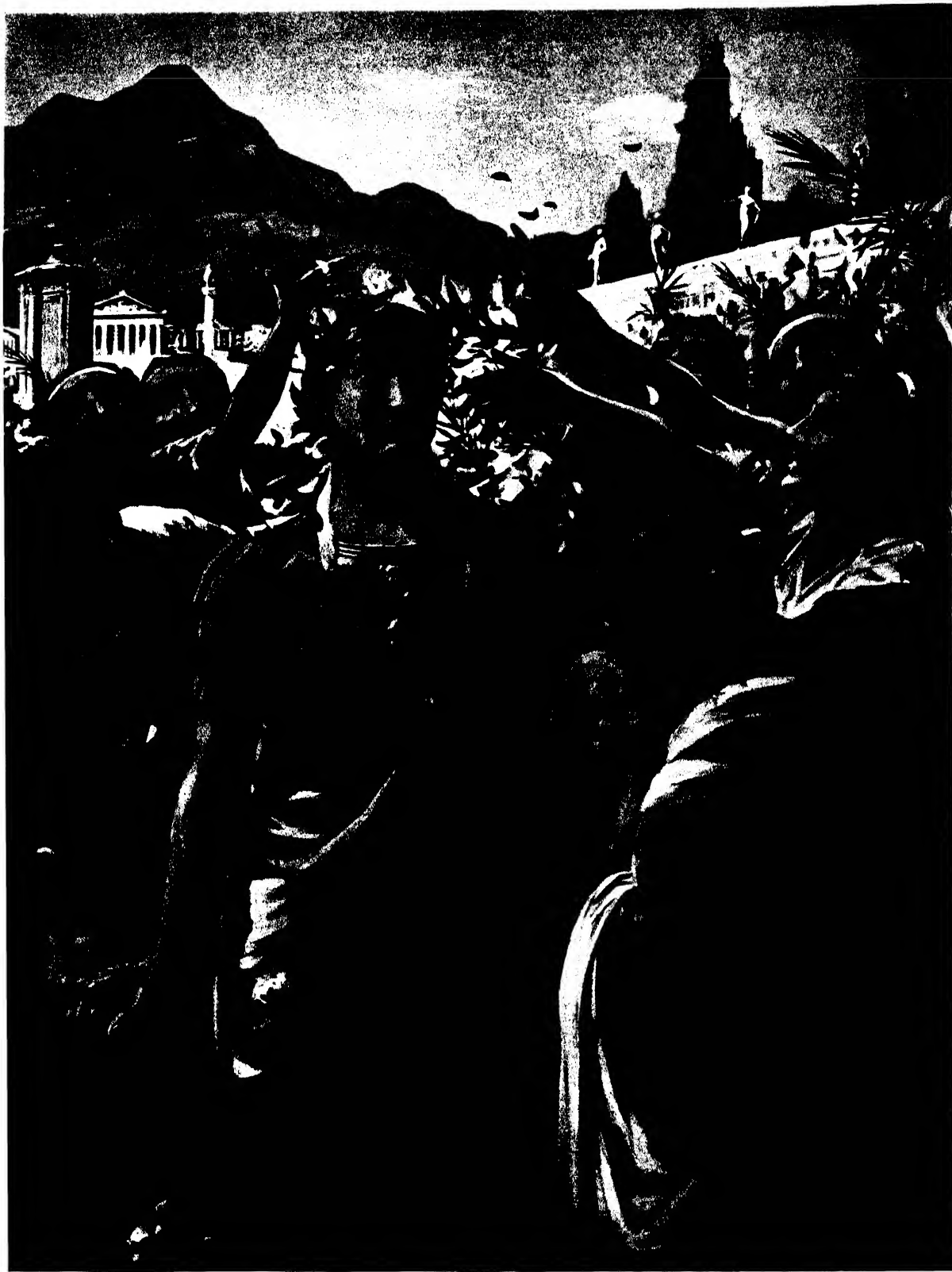


From the painting by H. le Roux.

THE ELECTION OF A VESTAL.

[Copyright by Braun et Cie.]

Whenever a vacancy occurred among the priestesses of Vesta the Pontifex Maximus named twenty maidens qualified for election as candidates, one of whom was publicly chosen by lot. She was then formally admitted by the Pontifex Maximus and taken into the sacred precincts of the college.



Painted specially for this work]

[By W. S. Bagdatopoulos.

FLAMININUS DECLARES GREECE FREE, B.C. 196.

At the close of the Second Macedonian War the Romans, after much deliberation, decided to withdraw their soldiers from Greece, the object of the war being accomplished. When this was announced by the Roman general Flamininus at the Isthmian games the Greeks were frantic with joy. A mighty shout went up, so mighty, it is said, that birds flying overhead fell dead to the ground, and all who could crowded round Flamininus, hailing him as their deliverer.

to be undertaken to Dalmatia and to Gaul beyond the Alps. A Roman force appeared on the western side of the mountains for the first time in 154. But there was no permanent occupation of territory there until 124, when a garrison was established at Aquae Sextiae (Aix) and a narrow territory was annexed which provided a route to Spain by land. A little later Narbo (Narbonne) was colonized. This strip of land was dignified with the name of "provincia," of which the modern "Provence" preserves a memory. In Spain there was incessant war, often disastrous to the Roman arms, owing to incompetent leadership and to the corruptibility and incapacity to govern which many of the commanders exhibited. The ancient inhabitants, like the modern, had a genius for guerilla operations, and the peninsula was not completely subjected to Roman rule till near the beginning of the Christian era.



Painted specially for this work

[By A. C. Weatherstone.]

POLYBIUS WITH THE SONS OF AEMILIUS PAULUS.

The historian Polybius was one of the thousand Achaean nobles who were taken captive to Rome in 168 B.C. He was a guest of Aemilius Paulus, in the education of whose two sons he played an important part, instructing them in "the lessons of practical life." Polybius became a close friend of the younger son, Scipio Africanus, with whom he went to Africa, being present at the destruction of Carthage.

For twenty years, from 154, the struggle was ceaseless. There appeared a native leader hardly equalled by any of the great barbarian chiefs who held Rome at bay during her conquest of the ancient world. This was Viriathus, who in the southern half of Spain cut to pieces several Roman armies. In 139 a governor captured him by an act of treachery. Meanwhile the Romans met with stubborn resistance in the north. After many defeats had been suffered, the younger Scipio finished the war by taking the fortress of Numantia, which endured heroically a siege of fifteen months, and in the end capitulated not to force, but to famine (133). At this time also the rugged regions in the west and north-west (Lusitania) were penetrated and subjugated after several campaigns. In our time excavations made on the site of Numantia have brought to light interesting memorials of the siege.

About the year 150 a change came over the foreign policy of the Roman government. For half a century it had shrunk from increasing the responsibilities of empire by fresh annexations. Such new territory as was acquired was of small extent, on the northern borders of the Italian peninsula and in Gaul. The settlement and organization of the lands once held by the Celts in northern Italy was carried on. A new career of conquest began with fresh trouble in Macedonia in 150, and continued



Painted by H. le Roux.

[Copyright by Braun et Cie.]

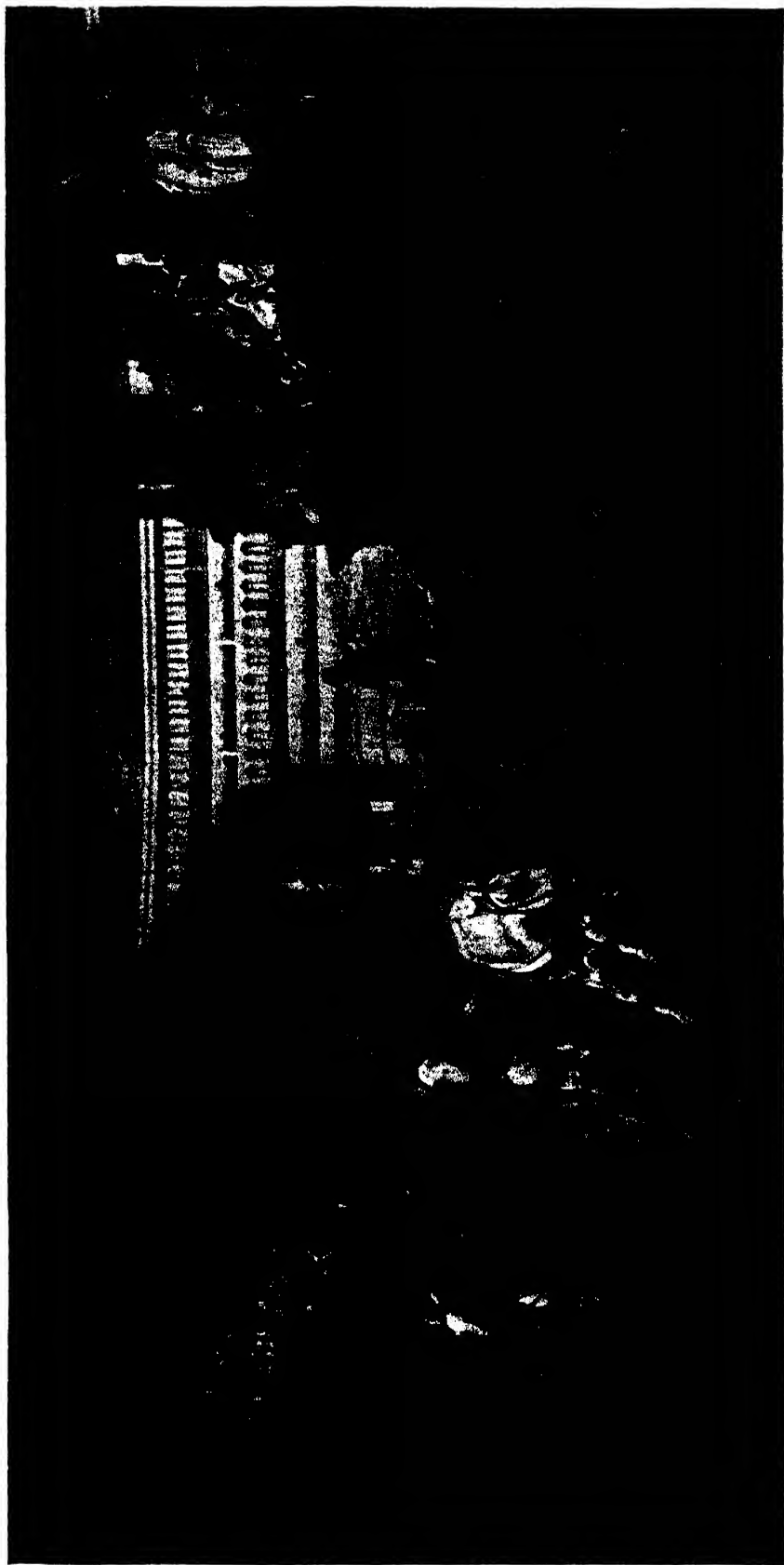
THE LUPERCAL.

Romulus and Remus were said to have been nurtured in the Lupercal, where annually the priests met on the 15th of February to sacrifice dogs and goats to Lupercus, the god of fertility.

Rome was opposed to the existence of leagues and alliances between cities, except in an attenuated form. In Aetolia, Acarnania, Epirus and Boeotia, combinations of cities, once powerful, had been dissolved or reduced to impotence. It was now the turn of the Achaeans. Sparta had for long been a thorn in their side. Over and over again she had been incorporated in the federation, only to break loose when she was strong enough. The dissensions between Sparta and the League gave the Romans the opportunity for which they had waited. In 147 they ordered that the independence of five cities should be recognized. Among these were Sparta, Argos and Corinth, the three most important

with few breaks till Claudius invaded Britain in 43 A.D. The four sections into which Aemilius Paulus had divided Macedonia failed to govern themselves peacefully. There was turmoil without end, needing Roman intervention. Then there appeared a Macedonian Perkin Warbeck, Andriscus by name, who called himself son of Perseus. He was the cause of a serious contest. In 146 an end was put to the shadowy autonomy of the Macedonians, and the Roman province of Macedonia was created. Four years later, another pretender, the "false Philip" (Pseudophilippus), took on him the mantle of Andriscus, but was easily crushed. To the new province were attached the posts which Rome had long occupied on the Adriatic, also Thessaly and Epirus. But in Thessaly the cities were "free" cities; that is to say, they were not technically under the jurisdiction of the Roman governor. A great road was immediately made, beginning at Dyrrachium (Durazzo), the usual landing-place for travellers from Italy to Greece, and ending at Thessalonica (Salonica), the leading town of the province. It served equally the purposes of war and peace, and has retained its importance through the ages to our day.

In 151 the survivors of the thousand Achaeans whom Paulus had carried off to Italy were released and went back to their home. Cato, who disliked the new policy of oppression, initiated by Marcellus, pleaded their cause, and they had the good offices of Polybius, himself one of the deported men, and for long an intimate of great Romans, particularly of the young Scipio Africanus. He accompanied his countrymen to Greece, but did not stay there long. The Roman government had turned a deaf ear to many appeals for mercy during the seventeen years of expatriation. The return of these exiles, with a keen sense of wrong in their hearts, did not make for peace.



From the painting by Prof. Wagner

By permission of the Manchester Art Gallery Committee

A ROMAN CHARIOT RACE

Chariot racing first became of political importance in the time of Gaius (Caligula). There were four great rival factions distinguished by their colours, of which the oldest were the white and the red. In the early days of the Empire came the blue and the green, and Domitian added a fifth, purple and gold. Each faction was elaborately organised, and in the later days of the Empire at Constantinople obtained the significance of a political party. The public games served to divert the attention of the people from politics and allowed them to give expression to their likes and dislikes. Titus is said to have placed people in the theatre to demand executions which he desired. The Circus Maximus, the model of the Circus Plautius (217 B.C.), was for a long time the only circus in Rome, and when rebuilt by Claudius held 250,000 spectators. Gaius, Nero and Hadrian each added to the number of the Circi. The race course was divided into two arms by a platform, and each race consisted usually of seven laps. The chariots were generally drawn by three or four horses, but sometimes by as many as ten, and since each driver aimed at upsetting his competitors, the races were extremely dangerous.

members of the confederacy. A great federal assembly was held at Corinth in 146, attended by tumultuous disorder, and Roman envoys who were present were contumeliously treated. War broke out. Metellus Macedonicus, who had put down Aristonicus, had remained in charge of Roman interests, and had acted with moderation. During the early stages of the new conflict Metellus was in command, and saw the hopes of the Achaeans wither away, more by internal discord than by the force of Roman arms. The last stand was made at Corinth, but when the siege took place Metellus had been replaced by L. Mummius. Before the city was captured it had been nearly deserted. Mummius entered through the open gate, but Corinth was sacked and utterly destroyed by fire. Of the few remaining people there, the men were massacred, the women and children sold as



Painted specially for this work

THE BATTLE OF MAGNESIA, 190 B.C.

[By I. Mosley.]

In 190 B.C., for the first time in history, a Roman army crossed the Bosphorus. It marched to attack Antiochus, king of Syria, who had assisted a Greek league against Rome. A battle was fought near Magnesia under Mount Sipylus, and the motley host of Antiochus, which included barbarian cavalry, scythed cars, slingers, elephants, and many other forces, was utterly defeated, the Romans losing less than four hundred men.

slaves. The noble city of ancient fame was wiped out of existence. Its large territory was, in the main, confiscated, and became part of the Roman national estate (*ager publicus*), of which the revenues passed into the Roman treasury.

The priceless artistic treasures of Corinth were partly destroyed, partly carried off and distributed, chiefly to Rome and Italian towns, but some to towns in Greece. Unlike Marcellus, Mummius did not value them. An ancient writer has preserved the familiar tale that as statues and pictures were being placed on ships to be transferred to Italy, he warned the workmen to be careful, since, if injury were done, they would have to replace them. Beyond the treatment of Corinth, Mummius was guilty of no excesses. The League was dissolved, and contributions in money were exacted. It was understood that democratic constitutions in the cities would have to give way to forms of aristocracy. Achaia did not become, in a strict sense, a Roman province until 27 B.C., when it began to receive regular governors,

and included much of northern Greece. But the officer who ruled Macedonia held a watching commission, and could interfere, if need were. The settlement necessitated by the war was made as usual by a commission sent from Rome ; but Polybius was wisely delegated after their departure to go round the cities, and counsel them to loyal acceptance of the new conditions, and to arbitrate in any outstanding difficulties. Thus Greece yielded to her inevitable doom. She was divided into a number of isolated civic communities, and so entered into the general plan of the Roman empire. The municipality, with a certain measure of local autonomy, became the universal unit of administration throughout the world, wherever the Romans went.

In the same year (146) in which Corinth was destroyed, the death-stroke was dealt to Carthage. She had shown a marvellous power of recovery after the disasters of the First Punic War and the Mercenary war which succeeded it, and the jealousy of Rome at her renewed prosperity would have brought on



Painted specially for this work

[By G. D. Rowlandson.]

DISCOMFITURE OF THE ROMANS IN THRACE.

The Roman army under Manlius, laden with plunder and badly disciplined, suffered great ignominy and loss on its disorderly march homeward through Thrace by attacks from the wild tribesmen there. Not till the autumn did it struggle through to the Adriatic coast, where it was compelled to winter. Later moralists dated the decay of old Roman simplicity from the return of this army, laden with the spoil of Asia.

the Second Punic War, if Hannibal had never lived. So it was now. Since the peace of 202 Carthage had been sorely harassed by the dishonest policy of Rome. Masinissa, the great king of Numidia, Rome's ally in the later years of the Hannibalic War, had been encouraged to encroach on the Carthaginian territory. The terms of the treaty of 202 made it difficult, even dangerous, for Carthage to offer armed resistance without the explicit consent of the Roman government. Complaints were fruitless ; when Rome did arbitrate between Masinissa and Carthage, the decision went scandalously in favour of Numidia. So the dominions of Carthage were impaired both on the eastern and on the western side. In 157 a commission was sent out with old Cato as its chief. He was appalled by the signs of material prosperity which met his eye. He had often striven hard to keep Roman foreign policy within the bounds of justice, which experience had shown to be for the most part also the bounds of right policy. But he could not apply his principles to the case of Carthage. A fanatical hatred made him clamour during the rest of his life for the destruction of the only civilized power which faced Rome with any vital force. Whenever



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Baydatorulos.]

THE SCIPIOS BEFORE THE SENATE.

Soon after the Eastern campaign an attack was made on the Scipios, chiefly at the instance of Cato, their inveterate enemy. When they appeared before the Senate on the charge of misappropriating money during the war with Antiochus, Scipio Africanus took from his brother Asiaticus the account of receipts and expenditures during the campaign, which he had brought with him, and tore the books into fragments, saying that "it was unworthy to call a man to account for a few thousands who had paid millions into the treasury."

*Painted specially for this work**[By N. Prescott-Davies.]***ROMAN APPRECIATION OF ART.**

After the sack of Corinth in 146 B.C. very many artistic treasures were carried off to Italy. The soldiers used paintings of Zeuxis or Apelles as boards on which to play dice or draughts.

Paulus, the conqueror of Macedon. He passed into the family of the Scipios by adoption, his new father being a son of Scipio Africanus. As a boy of seventeen or eighteen years he had seen service in Macedonia and Greece under Paulus. An intimacy with Polybius and other Greeks had made him a lover of all that was best in Hellenism, while he displayed in his character an old-fashioned Roman simplicity and scrupulousness that endeared him to Cato, who had been the implacable enemy of the conqueror of Hannibal.

In the early part of the siege Scipio acted as an officer of one of the legions, and showed true metal. In 148 old Masinissa died, out of humour with the Roman government. But he honoured Scipio by asking him to divide his kingdom between his three sons after his death.

Scipio was made consul for the year 147 and given the command. Like his grandfather by adoption, he was no favourite with the Senate, which gave him scant support. His commission was continued for a second year, and after a dire struggle, he succeeded, owing chiefly to

he spoke in the Senate on any subject whatever, he wound up with a recommendation that Carthage should be effaced. At last the Senate seized upon a discreditable pretext for beginning a new war. In the year 149 the Carthaginians met at last with armed resistance the encroachments of Masinissa, asking no leave from Rome. This could be represented as a breach of the treaty of 202. They suffered defeat, and on trying to avert wrath by submissiveness, not only to the Romans, but to Masinissa, the Carthaginians discovered that nothing would satisfy the Senate but the destruction of their capital, and the removal of the inhabitants to a new abode at a distance from the sea. They were driven to despair, and the siege of Carthage began, after its government had actually surrendered to the Roman commander nearly all the munitions of war. The defence was heroic, and the siege made no progress till a new Scipio was entrusted with the command.

Scipio Aemilianus was the son of Aemilius

*Painted specially for this work**[By N. Prescott-Davies.]***THE YOUTH OF CATO.**

Marcus Porcius Cato, famous as the enemy of luxury, took as models the rustic heroes of ancient Rome. He used to work with his slaves, wearing the same coarse dress and eating the same rough food.

the action of famine and pestilence within the city. The remnant of the inhabitants, who once, it is said, had numbered seven hundred thousand, was reduced to slavery, and the city was given over to utter destruction, as was Corinth in this same year 146. Scipio's task was little to his mind. Rome now annexed the domain that had remained to Carthage, leaving the sons of Masinissa in possession of what had been taken away. The new province was a narrow strip, whose coast-line extended from a point on the lesser Syrtis westward to the island of Tabraca. It was hemmed in on the east, west and south by the dominions of the Numidian princes. The city territory of Carthage, like the city territory of Corinth, became the property of the Roman state. Seven cities which had deserted from Carthage to Rome in due time, the most important being Utica, were left free and untaxed. The rest



By permission of L. H. Lefevre & Son, London.

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the original engraving.]

A FAVOURITE AUTHOR.

Although moralists loved to date the beginning of Roman decadence from the introduction of Greek customs into Italy, it must not be forgotten that many of those who cultivated Greek letters and art were the noblest sons of Rome—Scipio himself, Aemilius Paulus, and the like. The second Scipio was trained largely by the precepts of Polybius, the Greek statesman and historian.

of the towns were ordered to pay tribute, each providing a lump sum and dividing the burden among the citizens as it pleased. The arrangements showed a desire to avoid the difficulties of direct government within the new territory. The civic communities were left alone, as much as might be, as regards their internal affairs.

A few years after Rome established her authority in this portion of the African continent, she made her first annexation in Asia. The kings of Pergamum had been loyal allies of Rome, but it was a Roman custom to treat with hauteur an ally when his aid had ceased to be of importance. So after the battle of Pydna the Pergamene monarchs held their dominions on a precarious tenure, harassed by enemies whom the Romans might easily have checked before they became dangerous. The last king, Attalus III., was a vile and murderous despot. He died in 133 and bequeathed his treasure and dominions to Rome; but before the heir could enter upon the inheritance a serious resistance had to be overcome. Aristonicus,



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

Late Etruscan bronze mirror. A hero is shown being armed by women. On the extreme right is a representation of Silenus drinking.

an illegitimate son of a predecessor of Attalus, swept the country, and it was not until 130 that a Roman army suppressed him. Not all the extensive dominions of Pergamum were annexed. A large eastern section was bestowed on some neighbouring potentates. Certain possessions on the coast of Thrace were made part of the province of Macedonia. The remainder was constituted as a new province, and the name Asia, which properly belonged to a whole continent, was given to it. The new province was, like Africa, bordered by semi-independent principalities—buffer-states as they would now be called—which would stand between the Roman possessions and the outer barbarians, so that no great garrison would be needed for its defence. Asia, as defined by the Roman government, was at this time perhaps the richest portion of the ancient world, containing Greek cities like Pergamum, Ephesus and Smyrna, of great brilliance and wealth.

The year 133, in which Numantia surrendered to Scipio, was momentous for the future of Rome, for then began the long dying agony of the Republic. The fabric of oligarchical government received blows from which it never recovered. For a century and a half the movements in politics had been few, and had not gone deep; thus the innate Roman aversion to change in the form of institutions had been so strengthened that nearly a century of revolution was needed to convince Romans that the system under which their country had grown great was irretrievably doomed. The aristocratically-minded Roman historians of a later age nevertheless absurdly represented Tiberius Gracchus as launching

a bolt from the blue and wantonly corrupting a perfect polity. The new foe of the aristocracy was one of their own household, a fact that has had many parallels in history. The father of Tiberius Gracchus and Gaius Gracchus had been a successful general in Spain and a leader in the Senate, and had filled the great office of censor. He had married a daughter of Scipio Africanus, the Cornelia who has been immortalized as "the mother of the Gracchi." She devoted herself to the education of her two sons, and they were among the most cultivated and accomplished men of their time. Yet another link connected them with the Scipios, for their sister was wife of Scipio Aemilianus, the victor of Carthage and Numantia. On the 10th of December in the year 134, Tiberius entered on office as tribune, with colleagues who at first were all with him in his passion for reform. He had served creditably in Spain, and his character, along with the memory of his father, had enabled him to negotiate a convention with the rebel forces by which twenty thousand Italian lives had been saved. Among the glaring evils of the time, Gracchus determined to attack the depopulation of Italy, which was due to several potent causes. Ceaseless foreign service drew the cultivators away from the soil, and increasing wealth favoured the growth of large estates, so that the peasant proprietors, who had been the strength of early Rome and Italy, tended to disappear from large areas in the country. Pasture became more profitable than

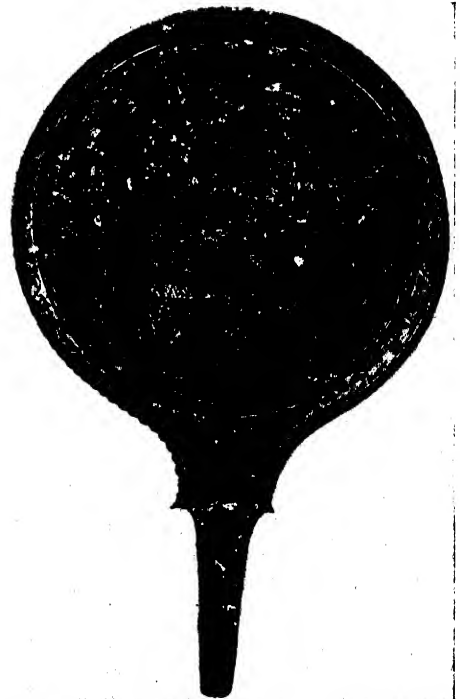


Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

Etruscan bronze mirror of the finest period, showing Helen being attired by three female attendants.



From the painting.

TRYING THE STRENGTH OF A TESTUDO.

The *testudo* (tortoise), formed by the locking together of the soldiers' shields, was used for many purposes: for approaching fortified positions, for bridging a ditch, and for providing cover during the perforation of a wall. On attacking walls from which missiles or boiling liquids were being thrown, the *testudo* would be sloped to allow the projectiles to slip harmlessly off. The historian Dio Cassius records a custom of trying the *testudo*'s strength by mounting a horse and chariot on its roof

[By F. Matania.



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE NIGHT BEFORE PYDNA.

On the night before the battle of Pydna in Macedonia an eclipse of the moon took place. Sulpicius Gallus, a legionary tribune, explained to the soldiers the natural causes of the phenomenon, and thus prevented any alarm. The enemy, on the other hand, were terrified, the eclipse seeming to them to predict the fall of the Macedonian monarchy.

cultivation. This was to some extent caused by the import of grain from Sicily and other Mediterranean lands, some of it representing the tribute imposed on conquered peoples.

That Tiberius Gracchus was a high-minded and disinterested patriot does not admit of serious doubt. He swayed the people as much by the impression of his passionate sincerity as by his noble oratory, in which, almost for the first time in Roman politics, the lessons learned from the great Greek orators were applied to the Latin tongue. He believed that the displacement of the small freeholders, who had given the Roman army its power, by slaves was a vast peril to the commonwealth. And he could reinforce his contention by an object-lesson of the moment. While he spoke, a horrible war was being waged in Sicily against insurgent slaves, in the course of which the whole island was devastated and the military resources of Rome were strained. His scheme was to resume the old policy of the agrarian law of Licinius and Sextius, passed in 367, to restrict severely the size of the leaseholds on the "national estates" (*publicus ager*), and to cut up the areas which were left free into small holdings for the dispossessed citizens. These estates were admittedly the property of the burgesses at large, but owing to lax administration they had been mainly monopolized by the wealthy, from whom an adequate rent was not exacted. Gracchus proposed to give thirty Roman acres (*iugera*) to each of a large number of new tenants, the holdings being inalienable, and subject to a rent payable to the treasury. Large holders were permitted to retain as much as five hundred acres, with an additional area of two hundred and fifty acres for each of two sons, and these tenants, along with the existing tenants of smaller areas, were relieved from rent. For land taken away compensation was to be given, according to a recent practice. Considering the limited range of the measure, which left the huge private estates (*latifundia*) intact, and, in fact, only touched the fringe of the great mischief of rural depopulation, the enthusiasm aroused by this proposal is remarkable.

Gracchus had reason to hope for strong support in the aristocracy itself, for many of its members felt deeply that the body politic was in need of a physician. For a time he had influential backers, but

he soon found, what reformers have found in all ages, that many will clamour for remedial measures, but will shrink in alarm from any practical embodiment of their professed aspirations. The story of Gracchus is like a tragedy in which the woe deepens from scene to scene, until the final catastrophe is reached. The oligarchs used remorselessly all the methods of obstruction afforded by the constitution, and they were many. On his side, he employed the full powers of the Tribune, though some of them had generally, for several generations, been allowed to slumber. It is an error to say, as has often been said, that they were in large part obsolete, and that his opponents were therefore justified in treating him as a rebel. The Greek historian Polybius, writing at this very time his remarkable survey of Roman institutions, insisted strongly on the democratic element, and on the Tribune as its expression. After a while a fellow-tribune was induced to join the opposition, and interposed his veto, thus illustrating one of many inherent weaknesses which the Tribune possessed as an instrument of reform. After exhausting all methods of persuasion, Gracchus induced the people to strip him of his office and to replace him by another. It was held that, because the tribune was "sacrosanct," that is inviolable the proceeding was unconstitutional. But only three years before, a noble, having suffered disgraceful defeat in Spain, had been deprived of his authority (*imperium*) by a vote of the people, and this was done on other occasions. The one resolution was in principle no more irregular than the other; but Gracchus undoubtedly brought down odium on himself by his action. The agrarian measure now passed by acclamation, and a commission, consisting of Gracchus himself, his younger brother Gaius and Appius Claudius, his father-in-law, was appointed to carry it out. Obstacles were of course thrown in their way. The Senate voted only a trivial sum for expenses. And the consuls, who were custodians of the public property when censors were not in office, refused their aid in determining the many



Painted specially for this work

[By A. C. Weatherstone.]

SCIPIO AT THE DEATHBED OF MASINISSA.

Masinissa, the aged king of Numidia, died in 148 B.C., out of humour with the Roman government. He honoured Scipio, however, who was present at his death, by asking him to divide the kingdom between Micipsa, Mastanabal, and Gulussa, Masinissa's three sons. These relations into which Rome entered with Numidia eventually drew her into a miserable dynastic quarrel.



Photo by]

[Littell & Co.

Funeral urn of about 150 B.C., decorated with a representation of a burial scene

remained in alliance with the democratic party. The division everywhere seems to have been between rich and poor. It became apparent that some of his opponents were determined to compass the tribune's death. The cry that he was bent on making himself a king (*rex*) was raised. He had done nothing that was not strictly within the limits of the constitution, though much that was contrary to recent practice. The consent of the Senate to legislation was not necessary after 287, yet it had been constantly obtained from the time when Flaminius passed his land law in 232. By custom, not by law, foreign relations and finance were entirely in the hands of the Senate. Gracchus made a breach with tradition when he proposed, without sanction of the Senate, to spend the treasures of Attalus, the last king of Pergamum, bequeathed by him to the Roman people, in order to equip the farms carved out of the national domain. An endeavour was made by his enemies to procure a resolution of the Senate authorizing the massacre of Gracchus and his party. This movement, hitherto unparalleled in Roman history, was frustrated by the veto of one of the consuls, Mucius Scaevola, an upright man and a distinguished lawyer. Gracchus had failed to secure a second year's tenure of the Tribunate. An old law, often overridden, and perhaps not really applicable to the tribune's office, was declared to bar the way. Finally Gracchus, while still tribune, and a number of his followers were clubbed to death by an armed mob, largely composed of slaves, and led by a prominent senator, Scipio Nasica Serapio, who was not even a magistrate and wielded no kind of public authority. This outbreak of anarchy was ever afterwards justified by aristocrats, whose favourite name for themselves was "the best men" (*optimates*), or "the good men" (*boni*), as a fine example of patriotism. The political annals of Rome had been singularly free from the use of violence. This was the first recorded revolution which was accompanied by bloodshed. The murder of a tribune while still in office and "sacrosanct" was an outrage previously unknown. The dying days of the Republic were often sullied afterwards by the lawless slaughter of citizens by citizens. The fashion was set, not by the reformers, but by

difficult questions which arose as to the boundaries of the national land. Gracchus therefore passed a bill, whereby this jurisdiction was transferred to the commission.

Meanwhile great opposition had been excited. Before the agrarian law had passed Gracchus had made it less liberal in its treatment of the old tenants of the national domain. Interests deemed "vested" must have suffered to some extent, but it is not probable that the curtailed holdings were in many cases of early creation. That some of the Italian allies regarded themselves as injured is clear, for Scipio made himself their champion. On the other hand, the mass of the Italians and Latins enthusiastically supported Gracchus, and

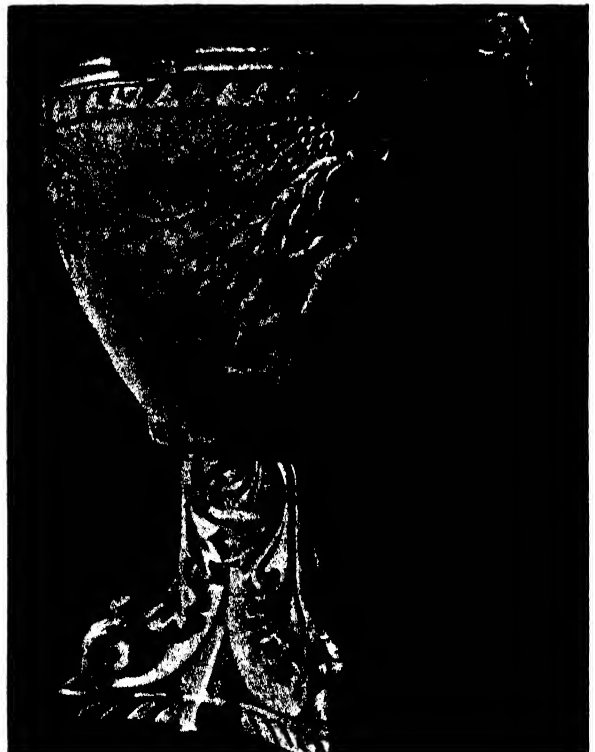


Photo by]

[Manelli & Co.

Funeral urn of Parian marble. About 150 B.C. Decorated with symbolical figures.



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Baydtopulos.]

"DELEND A EST CARTHAGO"

The Censor Cato was largely instrumental in bringing about the final destruction of Carthage. One day in the Senate-house he drew a bunch of early ripe figs from beneath his robe, and throwing them on the floor, said: "These figs were gathered but three days ago at Carthage: so close is the enemy to our walls." In all his speeches, whatever the subject of the debate might be, the closing words were "Carthage must be destroyed" (*delenda est Carthago*).



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE SURRENDER OF MANCINUS.

In 137 B.C. the Consul Hostilius Mancinus was entrapped by the Numantines in Spain and forced to sign a peace recognizing their independence. The Senate refused to ratify it, and went through the hypocritical ceremony of delivering Mancinus bound and naked to the enemy. But the Spaniards scornfully refused to accept such a compensation.

Scipio spoke against him, and was answered by the fiery young Gaius Gracchus, who retorted on Scipio the name "king," which had been hurled at Tiberius. The bill failed for the moment. In 129, after a day of bitter debate in the Senate, Scipio suddenly died. Every prominent democrat, and even Scipio's wife, who was a sister of the Gracchi, and Cornelia, their famous mother, were at one time or another charged with causing his death. But there is evidence to show that the nearest kin of the dead man assumed that he had died from natural causes.

The excitement caused by the agrarian law continued, and men from many Italian and Latin cities thronged to the capital from time to time. In 126 they were checked by an alien act, not the first passed at Rome. In the following year M. Fulvius Flaccus was consul, and proposed to admit to the Roman citizenship all the Italian allies who desired it; the rest to be placed on the same footing as Romans in respect of the right of appeal in criminal cases. The bill failed, but it clinched the alliance between the Italians and the democratic party. It increased, however, the difficulties of the democrats. Henceforth their party consisted of two wings, whose interests were often opposed, the poorer citizens on the one hand, and the Italians on the other. Their task was like that of a charioteer guiding two recalcitrant

those who proclaimed themselves the defenders of the constitution.

How odious the events were in the eyes of the people is shown by several circumstances. A pretext had to be found for removing the chief murderer, Scipio Nasica, to a place of safety, where he died soon after. Scipio Aemilianus lost his popularity by excusing what had been done. Religious expiations for the crime were publicly commanded. No attempt was made to abolish the land commission, which went on till 118. The vacant place was filled by the election of Carbo, a prominent democrat. But Scipio Aemilianus instigated in 129 a measure that took away once more from the commissioners the power of delimiting the national land. The Senate in 132 took an unusual, though not quite unprecedented step in setting up, without authorization from any legislative assembly, a criminal court to try the partisans of Gracchus, with power to execute or exile them, contrary to the cherished right of appeal to the assembled citizens. No public danger justified this course; it was merely prompted by revenge, and many suffered.

Long and bitter controversies ensued. In 131 Carbo, then tribune, introduced secret voting in the legislative Comitia. It had been applied a few years before to elections and trials. Carbo also tried to obtain an enactment definitely permitting the re-election of a tribune.

horses. A tragic event occurred after the bill was dropped. The noble Latin city of Fregellae, one of the first in Italy, which had done splendid service to Rome in time past, was supposed to be disloyal, which meant merely that its citizens gave expression to a sense of wrong. It was surrendered by treachery to a Roman force without any fighting, and levelled with the ground. But by such action the Roman government was merely laying up for itself wrath against the day of wrath, which was not far distant.

On the 10th of December in the year 124, Gaius Gracchus began his brief and brilliant career as a popular leader. His gifts as an orator and as an administrator of affairs excelled those of his brother. In character he was more imperious and passionate, and perhaps less purely patriotic. With him a great motive force was desire for revenge on those who had done to death Tiberius and his adherents by sweeping law aside. His speeches were as full of his brother's wrongs as his brother's were full of the wrongs of the people.

Gaius Gracchus, unlike Tiberius, found that all his nine colleagues in the Tribunate were of the same mind with himself. He enjoyed the office of tribune for two years in succession. His first care was to strengthen the constitutional guarantees for the liberty of the individual citizen. One enactment declared, probably with fresh definition and fresh penalties, the old principle that no man should be tried for a criminal offence excepting by a regularly constituted court. Another law aimed at securing fairness of trial before the regular courts; another at relieving the common soldier of the cost of his outfit. Other measures, however, had a more potent influence on subsequent history. The famous corn law, allowing citizens to receive corn at half the market price, the loss being borne by the treasury, established for practically the whole life of the Roman state the principle that the rulers must secure a low cost of living for the poorest in the capital. Much of the abuse subsequently heaped upon this enactment was misplaced. It only made permanent a form of relief which the oligarchy had applied irregularly for many generations, and with increasing frequency as the needy population of



Painted specially for this work

[By G. D. Rowlandson.]

THE FALL OF NUMANTIA, 133 B.C.

As the Spanish war continued to drag on, the people called on Scipio the younger to bring it to a conclusion. He thoroughly reorganized the army, and besieged the important city of Numantia. After enduring incredible hardships from famine, the Numantines at last surrendered. The town was levelled to the ground, and most of the inhabitants sold as slaves. Nearly the whole of Spain was then subject to Rome.

Rome grew apace. Its effect on agriculture in Italy has been much exaggerated. The corn imported by the government was distributed only in Rome itself, and the great difficulties of communication would leave districts at a comparatively small distance unaffected. Connected with the corn law was a statute concerning the new and rich province of Asia. The right of collecting taxes payable to the government was now to be sold by auction at Rome, not as before in the province.

The new arrangement about Asia was pleasing to the growing class of capitalists and speculators,

most of whom did not seek a political career in the magistracies and the Senate, but remained members of the equestrian body. Gracchus further gratified this body by handing over to it what had been a privilege of members of the Senate. The cumbersome method of trying offences in assemblies of the citizens had begun to break down. In 149 a permanent criminal court had been set up before which charges of misgovernment by the rulers of provinces might be tried (*quaestio repetundarum*). The jurymen, who had hitherto been senators, were now to be "equites." It was far from being an ideal plan. Provincial governors were to be tried by men whose interests tempted them to oppress the provincials, who could only look to the governors for protection. Much injustice resulted. The "equites" had hitherto been a class determined by cavalry service in the army. A new definition was provided by Gracchus, probably the property qualification of four hundred thousand sesterces, which is familiar in the literature of the late Republic and early Empire. This new organization of the equestrian body had a profound effect on subsequent history. When the empire was created, its administration depended largely upon the "equites."

With the passing of these statutes Gracchus reached the zenith of his career. His activity was almost superhuman; his administrative capacity was never surpassed. Plutarch gives us a wonderful picture of his ascendancy. He was perpetually surrounded by throngs of men of



Painted specially for this work]

[By Ernest Prater.

THE MURDER OF MEGALLIS.

Damophilus, a wealthy Sicilian landowner, and his wife Megallis were notorious for their cruel treatment of their slaves. In 135 B.C. a wholesale rising took place, the slaves quickly making themselves masters of the island. Horrible excesses were committed. Megallis, delivered over to the female slaves whom she had used so harshly, was tortured and finally flung over a precipice.

the most various kinds, contractors, craftsmen, envoys, magistrates, soldiers, scholars. His management of all was a marvel. The decline came when he took up two projects, one for a new system of colonization, the other for admitting the Italian allies of Rome within the pale of the citizenship. These were the proposals which wrecked his career. A sharp lesson was still needed before the burgesses at large could be induced to share the benefits of the franchise, even with their near kinsfolk, the Latins. The old system of colonization, as we have seen, had run to its conclusion. Gracchus now urged that a new series of burgess-colonies should be established on ground which formed part of the Roman domain (*publicus ager*), whether inside Italy or outside. A "colony" still implied a town, as of old, but



By permission of the owners of the copyright]

A MARKET SCENE AT POMPEII

Pompeii, an ancient city of Campania, was situated about two miles from the Bay of Naples, almost at the foot of Mount Vesuvius. Admitted to the franchise by Sulla, the town was rapidly romanized, and before the end of the Republic it became a popular pleasure resort for Roman nobles. The letters of the orator Cicero abound with allusions to his Pompeian villa. Its popularity increased under the Empire, and the city continued in a flourishing state until its total destruction by the eruption of Vesuvius in 79 A.D.

[Messrs. Leggett Brothers.



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

Statue of an unknown Roman citizen. About first century B.C. Showing how the toga was worn.

it was now to be, what the older colony had not been, frankly economic in its aim and not military in essence. To plant citizens outside the limits of Italy was a great innovation. Six thousand settlers were dispatched to Carthage. But the territory attached to that city had been placed under a curse when Scipio had laid it desolate. By working on superstitious fears and foretelling that a daughter city where Carthage once stood might well come to dominate her mother, the oligarchs were able to prevent the creation of a new municipality there. But the colonists sent out remained, though deprived of the usual forms of self-government. The chief agent in the defeat of Gaius Gracchus was Livius Drusus, of whom strange things are recorded. He is said to have propounded, in collusion with the Senate, a vast scheme of colonization on democratic lines, which took the wind out of Gracchus' sails. When that was accomplished the proposal was flung aside. Gracchus failed of election to a third year's tenure of the Tribune. Now a massacre was formally decreed by the Senate, on the patently baseless plea of danger to the state. Gracchus anticipated his enemies by employing the sword of a faithful slave. Two hundred and fifty of his friends, some men of distinction, were slain, and their bodies thrown into the Tiber. Afterwards, three thousand of the poorer adherents of the cause died by order of the consul Opimius, who became one of the heroes of the aristocratically-minded among his countrymen. The old Roman virtue of "modestia"—that is, reverence for law and order—was fatally wounded by those who professed to act in its name.

The oligarchs had put a few thousands of their opponents out of existence, but they had little power to restore the condition of affairs which the Gracchi had rudely overthrown. Even the land commission continued till 118. In 111 a comprehensive statute was passed, which formed a sort of codification of law touching tenures created out of the public estate. All disturbed titles were quieted. At some earlier time alienation of the new holdings had been permitted, so that rich men could begin again to lay field to field. Finally, holders were relieved of the rents payable to the treasury. Thus the agrarian movement initiated by Tiberius Gracchus came to its end. In 119 the democratic party was obviously growing strong again. The great Marius made his political début as tribune. Carbo, who had deserted the popular cause, was driven to his death by a criminal prosecution. In 118 the first regular settlement of burgesses outside the Italian peninsula was made at Narbo (Narbonne), in Gaul. Probably this was one of the items in the colonial scheme of Gracchus. The senators failed to wrest the control of the criminal courts from the equites. Public opinion demanded

it was now to be, what the older colony had not been, frankly economic in its aim and not military in essence. To plant citizens outside the limits of Italy was a great innovation. Six thousand settlers were dispatched to Carthage. But the territory attached to that city had been placed under a curse when Scipio had laid it desolate. By working on superstitious fears and foretelling that a daughter city where Carthage once stood might well come to dominate her mother, the oligarchs were able to prevent the creation of a new municipality there. But the colonists sent out remained, though deprived of the usual forms of self-government. The chief agent in the defeat of Gaius Gracchus was Livius Drusus, of whom strange things are recorded. He is said to have propounded, in collusion with the Senate, a vast scheme of colonization on democratic lines, which took the wind out of Gracchus' sails. When that was accomplished the proposal was flung aside. Gracchus failed of election to a third year's tenure of the Tribune. Now a massacre was formally decreed by the Senate, on the patently baseless plea of danger to the state. Gracchus anticipated his enemies by employing the sword of a faithful slave. Two hundred and fifty of his friends, some men of distinction, were slain, and their bodies thrown into the Tiber. Afterwards, three thousand of the poorer adherents of the cause died by order of the consul Opimius, who became one of the heroes of the aristocratically-minded among his countrymen. The old Roman virtue of "modestia"—that is, reverence for law and order—was fatally wounded by those who professed to act in its name.

The oligarchs had put a few thousands of their opponents out of existence, but they had little power to restore the condition of affairs which the Gracchi had



Painted specially for this work]

[By Wyndham Robinson.

THE DEATH OF CRASSUS.

Early in 130 B.C. the Consul Crassus was defeated and captured by Aristonicus, a pretender to the throne of Pergamus. Preferring death to slavery, the Roman struck the barbarian who had seized him, and was instantly cut down.

stronger measures to check misgovernment in the provinces. Soon many troubles began to gather round the government. Numidia had been divided into three kingdoms. Jugurtha, a grandson of old Masinissa, now endeavoured to make himself sole ruler, by crime at home and by unbounded bribery of prominent Romans. After years of scandal, the democrats forced on a war with Jugurtha in 111. A tribune of that year actually called Jugurtha to Rome to testify against the corruption of leading men who had dealt with him; but he found powerful protectors. While in the city he actually procured the assassination of one of the Numidian princes. His exclamation when ejected from Rome is familiar: "A city for sale, if it can find a purchaser!" The war dragged heavily, owing to military incapacity and corrupt bargains made with Jugurtha, which had to be repudiated.

Order was first brought into the war in Africa by a Metellus in 108. A stiff oligarch, he was appointed for his capacity and uprightness, and had Marius under him as staff officer. Metellus had deserved the



Painted specially for this work.

THE NIGHT BEFORE TIBERIUS GRACCHUS' DEATH.

On the expiration of his tribunate the reformer Tiberius Gracchus, knowing that his person was no longer protected by the sanctity of office, feared violence at the Assembly, where he was to be a candidate for re-election. On the night before he came into the Forum with his young son, and, possibly anticipating his untimely end, committed this precious charge to his fellow-citizens.

prolongation of his command, but by arts not altogether creditable Marius superseded him, and came to Africa as consul in 107. With all the rudeness and roughness of the early Roman, which endeared him to the common soldier, he had none of the early Roman's sense of honour. Cicero, who was a fellow-townsmen and connection, called him "the most treacherous of mankind." He had owed his career to the very Metellus whom he supplanted. Now he was recognized as the chief of the democratic party. His eminence as a soldier had been foretold by Scipio, on whose staff he had served at Numantia, along with Jugurtha. His first care was to make the disorderly army in Africa efficient. Service there had been unpopular, but the personality of Marius brought about a change. Men flocked to his standard, and he broke with old usage by admitting to the legion men without property, who had before only been allowed to serve as irregulars or with the fleet. He greatly changed the equipment and drill and tactical dispositions of the soldiers, so that his innovations mark an important epoch in the history of the Roman army. They accelerated the growing tendency whereby the attachment of the rank and file was to



[Photos by]

Marcus Tullius Cicero, b. 106 B.C. Orator, statesman, and man of letters. Murdered in 43 B.C.



Caius Marius, b. 157 B.C.; d. 87 B.C. Saved Rome from the barbarians. Seven times consul



Marcus Antonius, b. 83 B.C.; d. 30 B.C. Avenger of Caesar, rival of Augustus, and lover of Cleopatra.



[Mansell & Co.]

Cneius Pompeius Magnus, b. 106 B.C.; d. 37 B.C. Defeated the Marian party and was in turn defeated by Caesar.

commander rather than to country; and this was fateful for the Republic. But Marius did not find his task easy. Three years were needed before he could settle the affairs of Africa. The famous Sulla was one of his subordinates, and induced Bocchus, king of Mauretania, to surrender Jugurtha by a treacherous act. Sulla's vaunting of the achievement was the first cause of the bitter enmity between him and Marius, which bore awful fruit later. Marius entered on his second consulship on January 1st, 104, and on the same day enjoyed a great triumph, in which Jugurtha was led captive. At the end of the day, in accordance with a frequent custom on such occasions, the prince was plunged into prison to die.

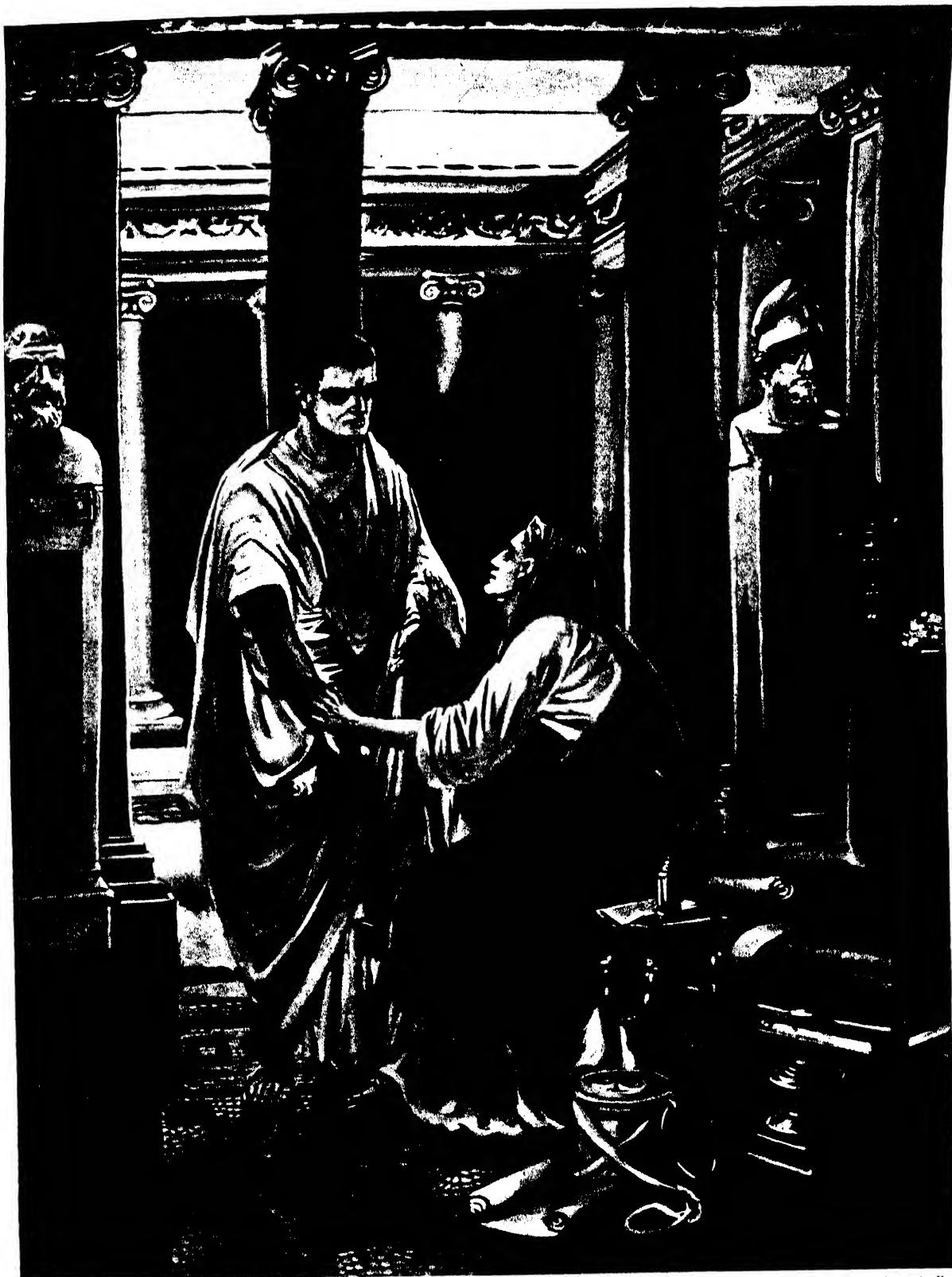
At this time the very stars in their courses were fighting against the Roman aristocracy, owing to an incessant stream of scandals and military disasters. Many members of noble families were in exile, having suffered condemnation at the hands either of the citizens at large or of the equestrian courts. In 107 an attempt, either unsuccessful, or very ephemerally successful, was made to wrest the control of the courts from the equites. Dangers threatening Italy on her northern, north-eastern and north-western frontiers produced alarm that ran to panic. Between 113 and 105 five Roman armies had been heavily defeated in these regions, and in some instances almost effaced, by barbarian hordes. The chief

of these were known by the name of the Cimbri and Teutoni. Celtic and Germanic tribes had, as often, made temporary alliance, in order to conquer lands for their support. They more than once offered peace to the Romans on condition that farms should be given them. A crowning calamity at Arausio (Orange), in 105, made all Italians shudder with dread, as the Roman historian Sallust says. Instead of invading Italy on its most vulnerable side, to the east of the Po valley, as they easily might have done, the barbarians passed to the west of the Alps and made havoc in Gaul and Spain. The invasion of Italy was



Caius Julius Caesar, b. 100 B.C.; d. 44 B.C. General, statesman and historian. Subdued Gaul, invaded Britain, became supreme in 46 B.C., given title of "Father of his Country," and made dictator for life

postponed till 102, when Marius was consul for the fourth time, his colleague being a capable noble, Q. Lutatius Catulus. The Teutoni were to enter by the western, the Cimbri by the eastern passes. Marius crossed into Gaul, leaving Catulus in the valley of the Po. After patiently waiting for an opportunity, Marius disposed of the Teutoni with unparalleled slaughter at Aquae Sextiae (Aix, in Provence), and hurried to the assistance of his colleague. The Cimbri came through the Brenner pass, sliding on their shields down the snowy slopes. A panic seized the army of Catulus. Had not the Cimbri waited



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

GAIUS GRACCHUS AND HIS MOTHER.

On his election as tribune in 124 B.C. the earlier measures of Gaius Gracchus were marked by a burning desire to avenge his brother's death. His first bill caused the banishment of Popilius, who had persecuted the followers of Tiberius. By his fiery speeches he roused the people against his opponents, and was only checked in his career of vengeance by his mother, Cornelia, who told him that it had reached a stage beyond which it could not proceed with honour.



Painted specially for this work]

[By J. H. Valda.

THE SURRENDER OF FREGELLAE.

Fregellae, a flourishing city on the Latin road, was one of the eighteen colonies which had remained faithful during the Hannibalic War. Disappointed at not receiving the full franchise as a reward, the citizens flew to arms, and the Prætor Opimius was ordered to crush the insurrection. Being admitted to the city by traitors, Opimius behaved with great harshness, levelling the walls to the ground and stripping the colony of all its rights.

in vain for their comrades the Teutoni, they could have devastated the rich regions of the south. Near Vercellæ (Vercelli) the two Roman armies utterly destroyed them. Hardly a barbarian survived who was not a prisoner. As the women and children of the tribes had travelled with the men, the barbaric peoples who had joined in the westward wanderings ceased to exist.

With the second triumph of Marius, the democratic opposition to the Senate seemed to have won an overwhelming victory. He was received with almost more than human honours. The field was open for new endeavours to cure or palliate the sickness from which the Republic was suffering. The army would give that support which was lacking in the case of the Gracchi. Marius was elected to a fifth consulship for the year 101 and (by bribery, it was said) to a sixth for the year 100. But he himself had no tincture of statesmanship, nor had he associates who could supply his deficiencies. His principal ally, Saturninus, was a man of talents, but turbulent and unscrupulous. He had been quæstor in 104 and was tribune in 103 and again in 100, and was instigator of riot and bloodshed, and even of assassination. His politics supplied a travesty of the schemes of the Gracchi. In 100 Saturninus was elected tribune for the following year. One of his colleagues was a pretending son of Tiberius Gracchus, who had already been the cause of much turmoil. But the whole community, Marius included, grew sick of the chaos and violence of which Saturninus was the cause. When the Senate, following the precedent which had brought Gaius Gracchus to his end, called upon the magistrates "to see to it that the country did not suffer" (such was the euphemism), Marius accepted the commission. He desired to spare the lives of Saturninus and his followers, after their surrender. But the populace tore off the roof of the Senate-house, where they were imprisoned, and pelted them to death. The Senate usurped the right to declare the enactments of the year 100 invalid.

The democratic impulse given by Tiberius Gracchus might seem now to have exhausted its force. But one peril continued to gather strength. The discontent of the Italian allies was now coming to a head. A great change had come over their feelings since the time of the Second Punic War, when Latin soldiers declined the Roman citizenship, offered to them as a reward for their bravery. Now the allies eagerly sought the franchise as a means of protection against contumely and injustice. Some of the older Latin communities had the privilege of settlement in the capital, and a limited right had been permitted them of voting in the public assembly. Numbers of men who did not possess any claim migrated to the capital and managed to secure, either for themselves or for their descendants, registration as Roman burgesses. The depletion of the country townships threw out of gear the relations between them and Rome, and it was at first at the desire, or with the consent, of the lesser Italian towns that the Roman government tried to send back to their places of origin those who had irregularly acquired the franchise. But as the condition of the allies grew more harassing, such measures were resented. In 95 B.C. two consuls of high character, one the great orator, M. Licinius Crassus, and Q. Mucius Scaevola, a member of a famous house, carried an enactment whereby all who had been enrolled on the registers as Roman citizens without legal title, and their children, should be sent back to the communities from which they had sprung. Romans afterwards considered this to be the chief proximate cause of the great Italian revolt which broke out in 90, and is known as the Social War, which all but shattered the Roman state.

But before the storm burst, there was a lull, during which one more attempt was made to carry reforms and to bring the allies within the pale of the constitution. The leader in the movement was a remarkable man, M. Livius Drusus, son of the great opponent of Gaius Gracchus. The career of the son is as strange as that of his father. Starting his tribunate at the end of the year 92, as a champion of the Senate, he ended as a revolutionary reformer. His first object of attack was the equestrian body, to which the control of the court for trying provincial governors (*quaestio repetundarum*) had been assigned by Gaius Gracchus. Some of the verdicts given by this court had been scandalous; men of high character had been condemned merely because they had protected the subject provinces against the illegal exactions of the tax-farmers, who were intimately connected with the equestrian class. One such condemnation, in 93, that of Rutilius, had shaken the state almost to its foundations. His military service at Numantia, in Africa, and against the Cimbri and Teutoni had been distinguished. As consul in 105



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

GAIUS GRACCHUS' CORN LAWS.

The second of Gaius Gracchus' famous Sempronian Laws enacted that the state should furnish corn at a low price to all possessing the Roman franchise, the losses incident to such sales being borne by the Treasury. This measure, although popular at the time, was unwise, as results clearly showed.

he had begun the reform of the army, which Marius carried to its completion. When Scaevola (afterwards consul in 95) went to Asia after his praetorship, Rutilius joined his staff, although a much older man. Their administration of Asia was a model for uprightness, so that provincial rulers in after-times were often admonished to copy it. Rutilius was a devoted adherent of the Stoic philosophy, and was sometimes called "the Roman Socrates." This was the man who was pronounced guilty of corruption at the instance of a coarse and base prosecutor. He shook off his quality of Roman citizen, refused reinstatement, and lived out his life as a burgess of the Greek city of Smyrna. In later ages he ranked as one of the great ideal heroes of the Republic, along with Camillus, Regulus and Fabius Cunctator.

Drusus was no self-seeking demagogue, though aristocratic tradition endeavoured to blacken his



Painted specially for this work]

[By A. C. Weatherstone.

AN ATTEMPT TO COLONIZE CARTHAGE, 122 B.C.

At the instigation of Gaius Gracchus six thousand settlers were dispatched to Carthage with the idea of founding a colony there. The oligarchical party, however, was hostile to the plan, and, by reminding the people of the curse under which the territory had been placed, was able to prevent the creation of a new municipality there. But the colonists remained, though deprived of the usual forms of self-government.

memory, along with that of the Gracchi and all other Republican reformers. We know that he was supported in his career till late in his year of office by some of the most prominent and conservative men in the Senate. But Drusus enthusiastically embraced the cause of the Latins and Italians, and this enabled his opponents to sweep away all he had done. Prodigious tales of secret treason were set afloat. The Senate declared all the measures of Drusus invalid. Worn out by excitement working on an epileptic brain, Drusus was one day taken home unconscious. Prayers for him were put up all over Italy. After his recovery he was one day stabbed in his house by an unknown hand. The utterance attributed to him as his last can hardly have been invented by the annalists: "Will my country ever have another patriot like myself?" He clearly foresaw the wrath that was to come. Political chaos ensued for twenty years, and twenty more sufficed to bring the Republic to an end.



Painted specially for this work

THE RISE OF MARIUS.

Marius, the future ruler of Rome, was serving in Africa as a staff officer under Metellus. Quarrelling with his commander, he managed to supersede him, and was elected consul in 107 B.C. Marius had all the early Roman roughness and rudeness which endeared him to the common soldier. Men flocked to his standard, and he greatly changed the equipment, drill, and tactical dispositions of the soldiers, so that his innovations mark an important epoch in the history of the Roman army.

[By Ambrose Dudley.]



Painted specially for this work]

[By C. R. Stanton.

JUGURTHA LEAVING ROME.

Jugurtha, a grandson of Masinissa, endeavoured to rule in Numidia by crime and unbounded bribery of prominent Romans. In 111 B.C. he was called to Rome to testify against the corruption of those who had dealt with him. While in the city he actually procured the assassination of one of the Numidian princes. His exclamation when ejected from Rome is familiar: "A city for sale, if it can find a purchaser!"

Shortly, all the town-communities among which the surface of the peninsula was divided, whether they had revolted or not, became Roman.

The end of the war did not bring internal peace at Rome. Causes of quarrel repeatedly led to bloodshed in the city. A measure, not of long endurance, provided that juries in the criminal courts should be drawn from a body popularly elected without restriction. Fierce internal strife was kindled by the approaching war with Mithradates, the great king of Pontus on the Euxine. He had been badly treated by Rome. The operations of the Social War had depressed the reputation of Marius and exalted that of Sulla, who was consul in 88, and had been commissioned to begin the conflict in Asia Minor. But the still glowing embers of the Social War kept him in Italy. The Eastern command was an object of ambition to the consuls of 87. Now appeared another demagogue of high birth, P. Sulpicius Rufus, a man of brilliant parts, who took on him the mantle of Drusus. The allies had acquired a title to all the political, as well as the social, privileges of Roman citizens. But until further measures were taken to incorporate the newly-enfranchised towns in the scheme of the tribes, the political rights could not be fully exercised. Sulpicius proposed to settle this question, which was keeping alive enmity between the old burgesses of Rome and the new. Other measures of the usual revolutionary type were proposed. Sulpicius allied himself with Marius in order to give him the command in the East. After much turmoil, Sulla broke up the alliance, executed Sulpicius, and the Senate pronounced Marius and his chief followers

The great "Social War" broke out on the death of Drusus. Its ravages during two years were as ruinous to Italy as the sixteen campaigns of Hannibal. The allies did not now fight for admission to the Roman commonwealth. They set up a new state, combining federalism with much imitation of Roman forms. Interesting coinage of the confederation has survived to our age. The area of the revolt was confined to middle and southern Italy, and the Samnites and Marsians, who had been the stoutest fighters in the Roman army, were the centre and soul of it. The first year's campaign went against the Romans, and there was imminent danger that the allies in northern Italy would join the rebels. This was only averted by a great political surrender. "The lex Julia de civitate" was passed, giving Roman burgess rights to all Italian civic communities which had either not taken part in the rebellion, or had surrendered. Another campaign brought the conflict nominally to a conclusion, yet considerable allied forces kept the field and participated in the civil wars which filled the next ten or twelve years. But the ultimate effect of the Julian law and other similar measures was to bring about in Italy an enormous political transformation.

"public enemies." It was at this time that Marius sat as an exile amid the ruins of Carthage, according to the familiar story. The laws of Sulpicius were cancelled. Sulla left for Greece early in 87, abandoning the attempt to cripple permanently the Marian party. Fresh commotions immediately arose, in which the enmity between the new citizens and the old still made itself felt. There was civil war on a large scale. In the year 87 Marius and Cinna, one of the consuls of the year, captured the capital, and horrible carnage followed, throughout which Marius raged with thirst for blood. The massacre, after causing thousands of deaths, including those of a majority of the Senate, had to be stopped by his own associates. Cinna and Marius announced themselves as consuls for 86. This was the famed seventh consulship of Marius, but he died after a few days' tenure.

The Roman empire was now practically split in two. Sulla controlled the eastern, Cinna and his friends the western portion. The majority of the Greeks both in Asia Minor and in the islands and on the European mainland had hailed Mithradates as a deliverer from Roman oppression. They were soon to find that the little finger of Mithradates was thicker than the Roman loins, in a political sense. The first part of the war was fought in Greece, which suffered severely during the contest. The forces of Mithradates were not driven from Europe till late in 86, and in 84 he was compelled to accept, after little further fighting, terms of peace. Great preparations were made in Italy to encounter Sulla on his return, which took place early in 83. Meanwhile Cinna had been killed by mutinous soldiers. In order to weaken the democrats, Sulla agreed to concede the demands of the allies in full. Not until late in 82 was he able to enter Rome. The interval was filled by hard warfare, brought to an end by a great battle just outside the Colline gate of the city. In this conflict a large contingent of Samnites fought against Sulla, and the survivors were executed to a man.



By permission of]

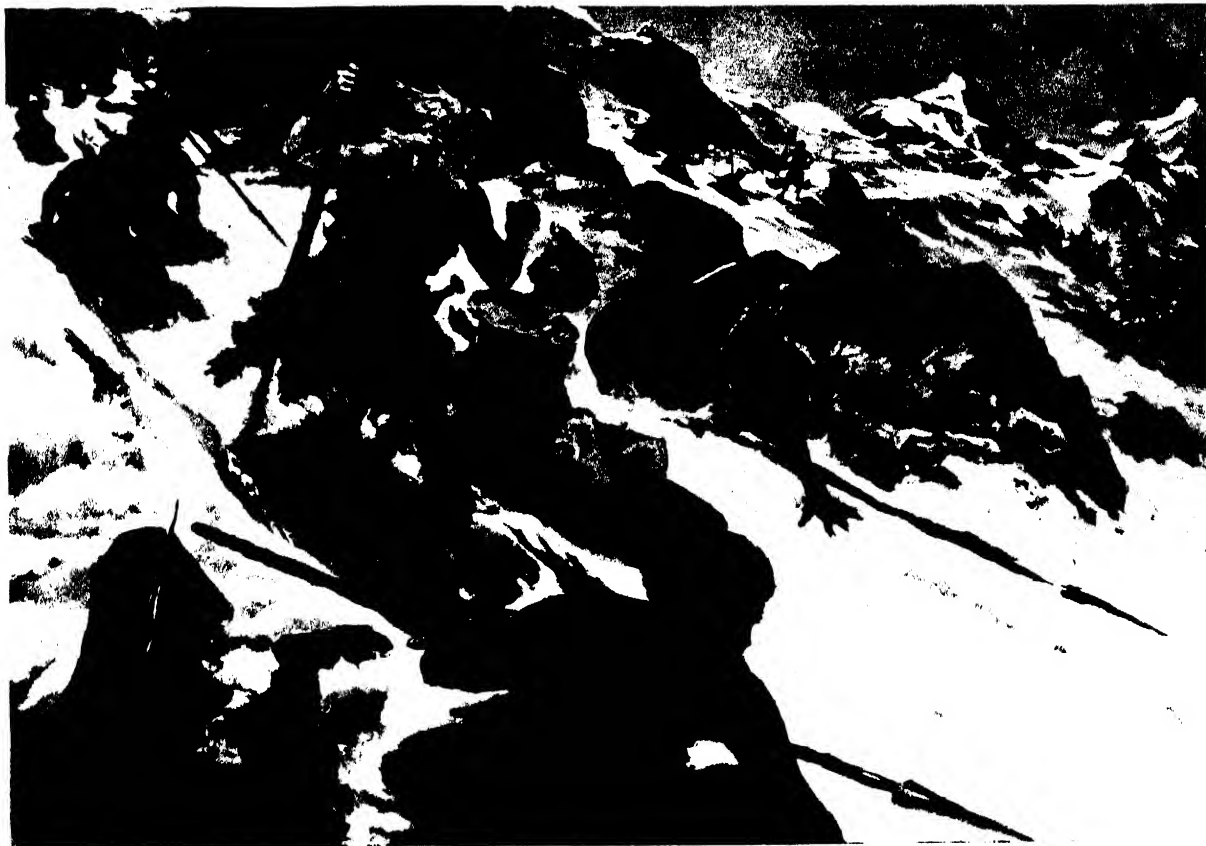
[Mansell & Co.

SULLA AND MARIUS.

The famous Sulla served under Marius in Africa as a subordinate officer, and was instrumental in capturing Jugurtha. Sulla's vaunting of this achievement led to a quarrel with Marius, and was the cause of a bitter enmity between the two great men, which bore awful fruit later.

An awful reign of terror followed. Thousands of names were published of persons who might be killed by anyone at sight for a stated reward. There was confiscation of property on a huge scale, both in the case of cities and of individuals. Many communities suffered by having settlements of Sulla's veterans planted side by side with them on land of which they had been robbed. In many places dual municipalities existed, the new being called "colonies." These "colonies" resembled those which had been created after the Hannibalic War in order to provide for the soldiers who had taken part in it. There was much "colonization" of the same sort in Italy afterwards. The plantation always caused great turmoil and unrest, and, naturally, the economic results were not great.

Sulla addressed himself to reform. The office conferred on him bore the old title of "dictator," but



Painted specially for this work

THE CIMBRI IN THE ALPS.

[By J. H. Velds.]

In 102 B.C. Italy was invaded by two huge tribes of barbarians, the Cimbri and the Teutoni. The Cimbri were to enter by the eastern, the Teutoni by the western, passes. The Cimbri poured through the Brenner pass, sliding on their shields down the snowy slopes. The Roman army under Catulus was seized with panic, and had not the Cimbri waited in vain for their companions, the Teutoni, they could have devastated the rich southern country.

the powers given him by the Comitia were those of an absolute despot. He turned to reform, but his one political idea was to bring back the constitution to the shape it had before it became democratized. The Senate received a veto on legislation, and the powers of the tribunes were reduced to a shadow of what they had been. The corn law of Gaius Gracchus was abrogated. The jury-courts were placed in the hands of the senators. Some other changes were salutary, and survived the general wreck of Sulla's constitution, which proved ephemeral.

The binding force of Sulla's regulations lay in his personality and in the support of his veterans. When he resigned his dictatorship in 79 the reign of ordinary law was in theory resumed. On his death in 78, there was nothing to restrain new political experiments. What nominal resolutions passed by the assembled citizens had done, similar resolutions could undo. Armed strife broke out immediately. In a pitched battle, fought on the Campus Martius, Lepidus, a consul of 78, was beaten and driven into exile,



Painted specially for this work

THE BATTLE OF AQUAE SEXTIAE, 102 B.C.

On their march to join the Cimbri the Teutoni were met by a Roman army under Marius near Aquae Sextiae (Aix-en-Provence) in Gaul and utterly destroyed. On the first day of the battle the barbarians were attacked while in disorder after crossing a river and driven back behind their wagons, where their women, frenzied with rage, rushed out, smiting pursuers and fugitives alike. The combat was brought to an end by nightfall, but on the next day it was continued and the invaders were utterly defeated, being slaughtered or captured almost to a man. Mont Victoire, which overlooks the battle-field, appears in the background.

[By J. H. Valda.



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

Equestrian statue of Marcus Nonius Balbus, a Roman senator (c. first century B.C.).

Crassus had been charged with the duty of suppressing it, and had nearly finished his task when Pompey, on his arrival, came on the last remnant of the slave army and shattered it. The rivalry between Pompey and Crassus became acute. There was general relief when Pompey, who had been expected to repeat the career of Sulla, declared for the restitution of the former Republican system, and accepted the consulship for the year 70, along with Crassus. The Senate and the tribunes were placed in the same position, relatively, as they had held before Sulla's changes. The criminal juries were now composed in equal numbers of senators, equites, and a body of men whose social position was near to that of equites, called "tribuni aerarii." The scandals which Cicero laid bare at this time in the trial of the infamous Verres for his gross misgovernment of Sicily had made the maintenance of the senatorial courts impossible.

Pompey had some great personal qualities. No man had risen to the top in public life who was more free from the taint of personal corruption. But his career, which had led him to the consulship without ever having held any of the lower political offices, had made it hard for him to live unless he were supreme over all those who were around him. His real interests were those of the soldier, though his enemies had some reason when they declared that till the closing scene of his life he never faced military problems of the first magnitude. As a politician he always found it impossible to maintain prestige. In the troubled years which ensued on his return, he again and again felt himself the object of contempt in the capital, and then he always thirsted for some exceptional honour, military if possible, which would restore his self-esteem.

Two or three years of home politics sufficed to dim Pompey's fame, and to cause him to yearn after opportunity to refresh it in the one way possible for him, by operations of war. In 67 the Romans found it necessary to grapple with the evil of piracy, which had been inveterate in the Mediterranean from the earliest dawn of history. The year 67 was one of considerable excitement. Several revolutionary tribunes were refreshing the embers of old feuds and were attacking the Senate. The aristocrats were replying in such manner as they could, particularly by prosecuting popular leaders in the criminal courts. Bribery and corruption were more rampant than ever, and the scandals of provincial government had

where he died. Q. Sertorius, an old officer of Marius, had made himself ruler of Spain after the suppression of the Marian party in Rome. Long efforts were needed in order to bring it under the control of the Senate. Sertorius was murdered in 72. Similar operations were called for elsewhere, as in Africa. These troubles gave opportunity for the celebrated Pompey to make his reputation. He had served with distinction on the side of Sulla, as had his father, during the wars in Italy. When he brought his army back to Italy late in the year 71, he was thought to hold the fate of Rome in his hand.

Meanwhile the ordinances of Sulla had been impaired to some extent. In particular the public distribution of corn had been restored in 73. Tribunician agitation was incessant. In the years from 73 to 71 attention in Italy had been greatly concentrated on the slave war, in which the celebrated Spartacus was leader. M. Licinius

never been more flagrant. At the same time, affairs in the East were in a state of ferment. The famous Mithradates had again entered on war with Rome in the year 74; and M. Licinius Lucullus, one of the greatest of Roman generals, had been carrying on the contest with him in Asia Minor for years, recently with much success. Pompey was notoriously jealous of the growing reputation of Lucullus. Mithradates was powerful on the sea, and the pirates were his allies. They had great strongholds in Cilicia, and issuing from them, raided all the coasts of the Mediterranean. It was said that four hundred maritime cities were sacked. Even Italy was treated with insolence. Its ports were assailed; Ostia, the nearest to Rome, did not escape. The raiders often penetrated inland, and carried away captives. At one time two praetors with their attendants were seized on the most frequented road in Italy, the Appian Way, running between Rome and Brundisium. Piracy and the slave trade went hand in hand. Large districts in the provinces were almost depopulated by the kidnapping of the inhabitants. The need for action was brought home to the poorest citizens at Rome by the danger of famine, brought about by the interruption of commerce through want of peace on the high seas.

Once more Pompey, contrary to his inclinations, was forced into alliance with the popular party. A tribune, Gabinius, proposed to create a great special command for the suppression of piracy. The name of Pompey was not mentioned by him, but it was on the tongues of all other men. The officer appointed was to enjoy an almost unprecedented authority. For three years he was to have, for a space of fifty miles inland, equal power with all governors of provinces. Vast resources in men, money and ships were to be at his sole disposal. Amid scenes of riot, the law was carried. By a second measure Pompey was appointed, and the privileges given by the first measure were largely increased. The "optimates" could but vent their bitterness in ineffectual language, denouncing Pompey as a "King of Kings"—that is to say, as an Oriental despot. He spread his officers and ships over the Mediterranean, and in three months the sea was clear and the robbers had been crushed in their Cilician fastnesses. Pompey was covered with glory, and his democratic friends in Rome entered on a second and greater campaign on his behalf. The fine victories won by Lucullus over Mithradates had been neutralized by great outbreaks of disorder among his troops. Another tribune, Manilius, now brought forward a measure for superseding Lucullus and



Painted specially for this work

[By A. C. Conrade.]

RUTILIUS IN SMYRNA.

In the year 93 B.C. Rutilius, sometimes called "the Roman Socrates," returned from Asia, where he and Scaevola had been conducting an administration which was a model for uprightness. Accused and pronounced guilty of corruption at the instance of a coarse and base prosecutor, he shook off his quality as a Roman citizen, refused reinstatement, and lived out his life as a bourgeois of the Greek city of Smyrna.

transferring to Pompey the conduct of the war. Cicero supported the proposal in a speech still extant, and Caesar, who now began to be prominent among the democrats, was delighted to widen the breach between Pompey and the Senate. The Manilian law was easily carried. The position which it gave to Pompey was even grander than that which he enjoyed under the statute of Gabinius. He passed four years in Asia Minor, ranging over it, making annexations, recasting all the relations which had hitherto subsisted between Rome and innumerable cities, princes and tribes. As a political organizer,



Painted specially for this work

[By N. Prescott-Davies.]

SATURNINUS AND HIS ADHERENTS PELTED IN THE SENATE-HOUSE, 100 B.C.

Marius was far less successful in politics than in war. His principal ally, the tribune Saturninus, was an instigator of riot and bloodshed which sickened the whole community, Marius included. Saturninus was declared an enemy of the state, seized, and imprisoned. But the populace tore off the roof of the Senate-house, in which he and his friends were, and pelted them to death.

one Roman province. The principles on which Pompey everywhere proceeded were in harmony with the older Roman tradition, which favoured local freedom.

Pompey returned to Italy in 61, to enjoy another magnificent triumph. Men were surprised that he should again disband his army as he had done ten years before. During his absence there had been a continuance of political agitation and tumult. Tribunes endeavoured to exploit the discontent of large groups in the city and in Italy. The civil wars had left much misery behind them. The year 63, when the great orator Cicero was consul, was marked by a number of important movements, in some of which

Pompey had only one equal in the whole history of Rome—namely, the Emperor Augustus. There was not much serious fighting while he held command. Lucullus had some reason when he compared Pompey to the vulture whose habit it is to feast on bodies which others have slain. Mithradates collapsed and died in 63. The Syrian monarchy, defeated and curbed by Rome in 190, had been growing continuously weaker. Jewish insurrections under the Hasmonean princes had contributed much to the process of decay. Pompey finally ended the dynasty and made Syria a Roman province. The Jewish kingdom was diminished and subordinated to Rome, after a great siege of Jerusalem. It is well known how Pompey entered the Holy of Holies, and was astonished to find no image there. He was distinguished among Roman conquerors of the holy city, in that he did not rob the Temple of its treasure.

In other parts of Asia Minor Pompey extended the Roman power. As a consequence of the suppression of the pirates, the boundaries of the Roman province of Cilicia were enlarged. Pontus, the original kingdom of Mithradates, bordering on the Black Sea, was taken into possession and brought into order. So, too, with the kingdom of Bithynia to the west of it, which had been devised to Rome a few years before by its last king. These two realms were united to form



Painted specially for this work]

[By H. M. Burton,

DRUSUS CARRIED HOME UNCONSCIOUS.

The reformer Drusus, although at first supported by many of the Senate, eventually incurred their enmity, and went in daily fear of their revenge. Worn out by excitement, Drusus was one day carried home suffering from an epileptic seizure. Shortly after his recovery he was assassinated, his last words before death being: "Will my country ever have another patriot like myself?"



Painted specially for this work]

[by H. Gandy.

"DAREST THOU KILL GAIUS MARIUS?"

During the Social War Marius was at one time a fugitive. Captured by adherents of Sulla, he was thrown into a dark room and a Gaulish slave sent to kill him. But as the slave entered Marius' eyes glared through the gloom, and a deep voice thundered: "Fellow, darest thou kill Gaius Marius?" Throwing down his weapon, the Gaul fled, crying, "I cannot slay Gaius Marius!"

Caesar was deeply concerned. He courted popularity by every means, and was becoming more and more conspicuous in the political field. A gigantic agrarian proposal, dealing with all the land in the possession of the state, in whatever part of the world it might be situated, was instigated by him. It was frustrated by Cicero's eloquence. Next a formidable attack was delivered on the power which the Senate had assumed in the age of Gaius Gracchus of suppressing agitation by force, of passing what was called "the extreme decree of the Senate" (*Senatus consultum ultimum*). This was practically a declaration of martial law, and abolished for the time being all guarantees for life and liberty.

In the same year Catiline, who had caused alarm by his machinations two years earlier, renewed his plot on a larger scale than before. He enlisted a crew of malcontents; among them bankrupt nobles like himself; veterans who had not flourished in the military colonies; men who had suffered from the confiscations, particularly in Etruria; and descendants of Sulla's victims, who laboured under political disability, being still excluded from a political career. His scheme to seize on the government was detected. Some of Catiline's adherents in the city were put to death, after the *Senatus consultum ultimum* had been passed. There was a memorable debate in the Senate concerning their punishment, in which Caesar pleaded for leniency, and the celebrated Stoic, Cato, for the extreme penalty. There was an armed rising, headed by Catiline, in Etruria, which was put down early in 62, when the leader fell. Efforts had been made to prove the complicity of Caesar and Crassus in the conspiracy, but these had failed.

A little later Pompey arrived, and found himself very much at the mercy of a hostile Senate, controlled by the supporters of his enemy Lucullus. Two things were of vital importance to him: first, that lands

should be provided for the disbanded soldiers of his army ; next, that the extensive and intricate arrangements made by him in Asia Minor should receive sanction. The Senate refused him satisfaction. A long time elapsed without bringing him nearer to the goal of his desires. Once more he was driven into a compact with the political enemies of the Senate. Caesar had returned from Spain, where he had been governor, with an enhanced reputation, and was anxious to be elected as consul for the year 59. He promised to further Pompey's aims, and secured the aid of Crassus, the wealthiest man of his day. Thus was formed the so-called "First Triumvirate," which was a mere private alliance of three men for the purpose of controlling the machinery of state, and of exploiting it for their own benefit. This "three-headed monster," as it was called by the great scholar Varro, soon held the country in complete subjection. It dominated the legislative and electoral assemblies, and disposed of offices and the public revenue almost at its will. These results were reached partly by unstinted bribery, but mainly by packing the meetings of the people and paralysing opposition by intimidation and actual violence. Leading politicians of all sections now kept on foot armed gangs of gladiators and low-class citizens. For years pitched battles took place in the streets, in which sometimes hundreds of people were killed. The Republic was hurrying on to its long foreseen end. Force was illegitimately dominant ; the only cure was to legitimate its dominance by establishing the supremacy of the regular army, under the rule of its representatives, the emperors. The all-powerful Three did nothing to mitigate disorder. They stood by, ready to draw profit from the desperate remedies that would have to be applied to the body politic when its diseases should bring it to the verge of dissolution.

Caesar's first consulship in 59 was memorable. Pompey's demands were satisfied. All the measures he had taken in the East were validated by legislation. Provision was made for his old soldiers by a great agrarian law, which Caesar, departing from usage, himself introduced as consul. Such measures had been, in recent centuries, associated with the tribunate. The public territory in Campania, and



Painted specially for this work

[By Norman Little.]

THE BATTLE OF THE COLLINE GATE, 82 B.C.

The Battle of the Colline Gate ended the Social War. The Marian party and their Samnite allies were practically crushed and Sulla became supreme. He himself was in the thick of the fight, riding a white horse, and a mark for every javelin. Narrowly escaping death at the hands of two Samnites, he drew out a figurine of Apollo which he always carried with him and devoutly kissed it, thanking the god for his succour.

additional land there to be bought with the rich new revenues accruing from Pompey's annexations, was now divided among twenty thousand settlers, partly veterans and partly men drawn from the proletariat of the capital. The allotments were made inalienable for twenty years. Pompey and Crassus accepted seats on the commission for carrying the law into operation. Capua, though deprived of its municipal institutions as a punishment for its alliance with Hannibal, had not ceased to be the second town of Italy. Now its local autonomy was restored, as a "colony." To the



Painted specially for this work]

[By H. M. Burton.]

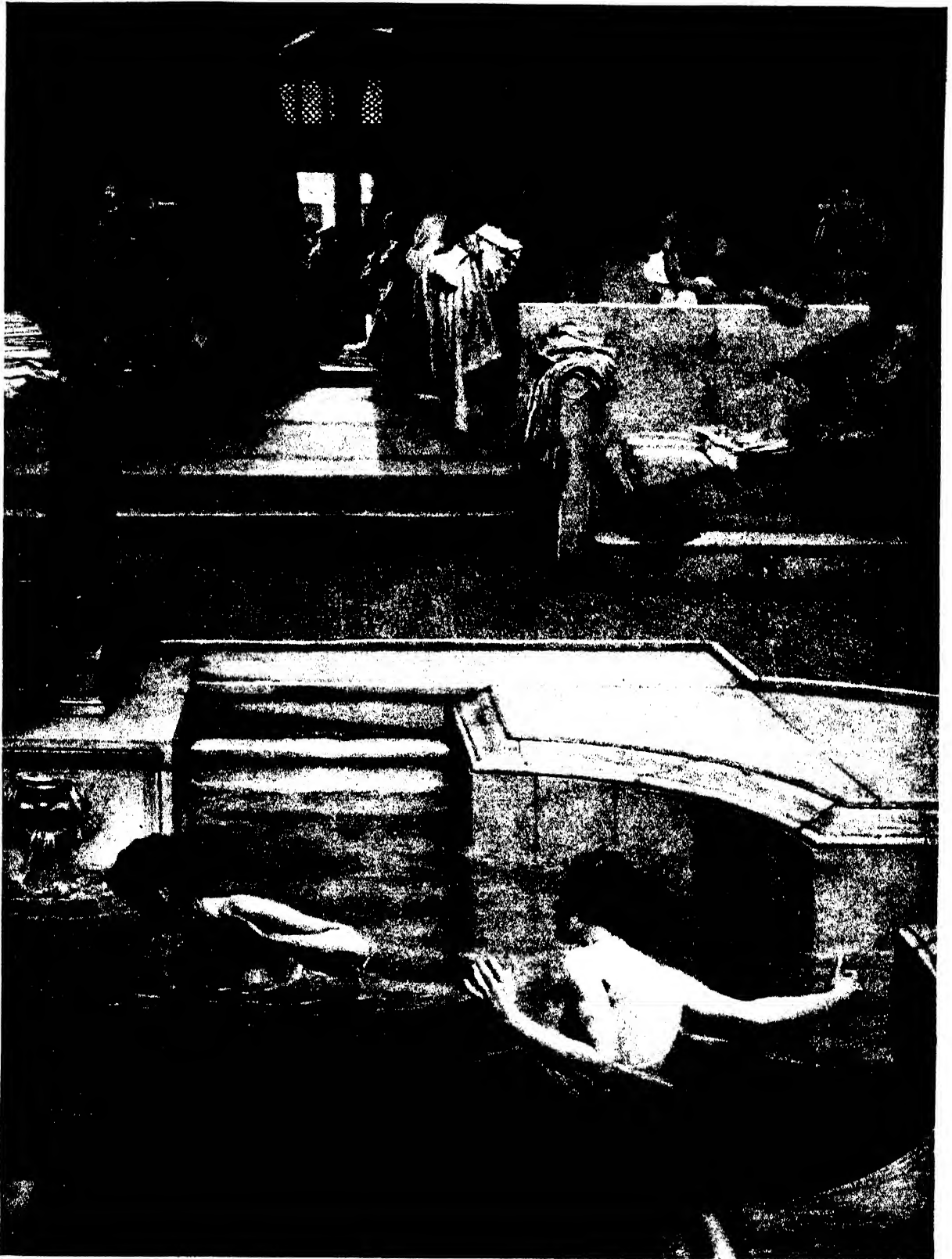
SULLA'S PROSCRIPTION.

After the Battle of the Colline Gate came an awful reign of terror in Rome. Thousands of citizens were proscribed, and it was possible for any of Sulla's party to procure the death of a personal enemy. A citizen, who had never taken part in politics, found his name on the proscription lists in the Forum. "It is my Alban villa which slays me," he cried, and tried to escape, but was soon struck down by an assassin.

One statute passed by Caesar himself showed a sound desire for reform. He provided by an enactment, which had great influence in the later age, new and elaborate guarantees against misgovernment in the provinces. But this "*lex Julia repetundarum*" was violated with impunity by some of Caesar's own henchmen, when by his favour they became provincial rulers.

The situation in Gaul had been threatening for many years. Caesar now determined on the conquest of the whole country. A tribunician law gave him command in Cisalpine Gaul (the region between the Alps and Apennines) and Illyricum for five years from the first day of March in the year 59, with a force of three legions. The Senate, making a virtue of necessity, added Transalpine Gaul with a fourth legion.

the ancient mind, a city without some measure of self-government was a city of the dead, however populous and prosperous it might be. Caesar also settled a great controversy which had raged between the Senate and the body of tax-farmers, the "publicani." Those who had made the last contract for collecting revenue in the province of Asia declared that the sum they had undertaken to pay was excessive, and had demanded a large reduction. Caesar now gave the "publicani" by law all they had asked; but a good part of the plunder found its way into the coffers of the Three. Crassus, the close associate of the capitalist class, was gratified. All these enactments were carried in complete defiance of all the methods of obstruction which were provided by the Republican constitution. Bibulus, Caesar's colleague, went into retirement, and issued proclamations against the illegalities, which were as futile as they were brilliant in their style of invective. From the point of view of the old constitution, all the legislation of the year was null and void. But the attempts to abolish it had only one effect, that of keeping Pompey loyal to his compact with Caesar, in spite of his distaste for many of the consequences to which it had led. Another restraining force was found in the marriage of Pompey with Caesar's only child, Julia, to whom her husband was devoted.



Copyright by]

[Braun et Cie.

ROMAN LADIES BATHING.

Public baths (*balneae*) were first built in Rome after Clodius brought in the supply of water from Praeneste. After that date they became common in many Italian cities. During the Empire the baths reached a state of great splendour, having gymnasia attached, and sometimes even theatres and libraries. They began to fall into decay as public institutions in about the fifth century A.D., largely in consequence of the cutting off of the aqueducts by the Huns and the decrease of the population.

*Painted specially for this work]*

THE MURDER OF SERTORIUS, 72 B.C.

[By A. C. Weatherstone.]

The remnants of the Marian party, led by Sertorius and aided by some of the native tribes, made a long stand in Spain. Sertorius was a man of great ability, and was regarded by the Spaniards as supernaturally wise. But Perpenna, who wished to be supreme in the country, invited his leader to a banquet at Osca, during which he caused him to be treacherous y assassinated.

This senatorial commission was, in principle, revocable at the end of a year ; but in such a case a principle was nothing but an empty shadow.

The year 58 was one of intensified political chaos. Clodius, a degenerate representative of the great house of the Claudii, became tribune. An attack upon Cicero for his action in putting down the conspiracy of Catiline had been long impending. For a private reason Clodius became Cicero's enemy. He had created a great public scandal by profaning a religious celebration, had been tried by a special court and corruptly acquitted. Being of patrician birth, he was disqualified for the tribunate. The Three grew dissatisfied with Cicero's political action. It is to his credit that he repelled flattering overtures made to him by Caesar. After opposing Clodius for a time, Caesar and Pompey facilitated his transition to the plebeian ranks, and he became tribune. His tenure of office was a "masque of anarchy." That he was tolerated by the Three is a marvel. He drove Cicero into exile, not by any form of trial, but by way of legislation. With the aid of his gladiators, Clodius passed many measures for sufficient fees, received from individuals and from foreign communities and potentates. One evil result was cruel misgovernment in Syria and Greece, for which enactments by Clodius gave opportunity. The governor of Macedonia, to which Greece was not in strictness subject, was given a power which enabled him to devastate the Greek communities. There was a long struggle in Rome, accompanied by much bloodshed in the streets, over Cicero's restoration. He did not return till September in the year 57, and had a great reception.

This change in the state of politics was brought about in the main by Pompey's growing dissatisfaction and obvious cooling towards Caesar. Pompey, being as yet a much greater figure than Caesar in the eyes of the burgesses, was held responsible for all the evils that had ensued on the Triple Alliance. He felt keenly the weight of his unpopularity. A sop was thrown to him just after Cicero's return in

the shape of a great special commission, such as he loved. He was given for five years the superintendence of the supply of corn, with an authority which extended all over the empire, and vast resources in men, money and ships. He hungered after another commission—that of restoring the king of Egypt, whom his subjects had driven out. Many coveted this piece of service, likely to prove extremely lucrative. There was naturally much obstruction, and Gabinius, governor of Syria, seized the opportunity in the year 56.

The Senate now made an attempt to undo the legislation, particularly the agrarian legislation, of Caesar's consulship. This had the effect of drawing Pompey and Caesar closely together once more. Cicero had taken part in the hostile movement, but recanted on receiving an ominous intimation from Pompey. In 56 came the celebrated conference at Luca, in Etruria. Caesar's extraordinary victories in Gaul were rapidly raising him to a level with Pompey in public estimation. It was his custom to spend his winters in the north of Italy, within the limits of the Cisalpine province. He was thus enabled to keep in touch with politics and politicians. He was now at Luca, and a magnificent assembly of magistrates and public men came there to do homage to the rising sun. The scene must have been not without its bitterness for Pompey. But a conference between him, Caesar and Crassus gave a new lease of life to their compact. Caesar's command was to be prolonged for five years more, till the first of March, 49. Pompey was to have control of the Spanish peninsula for five years. Crassus, whose head was filled with dreams of military glory and Eastern treasures, undertook the government of Syria and a war against the great Parthian empire. This was a consequence of the annexation of Syria.

Pompey and Crassus were colleagues in the consulship of the year 55, as they had been fifteen years earlier, colleagues, but never friends. They gave effect to the new articles of partnership. The arrangements about the provinces were supported by Cicero in an extant speech. Old Republicans now cried that the citadel of Rome had been betrayed to the enemy. Before the end of the year Crassus marched off, amid many evil prognostications, to meet his fate in the desert beyond Syria. In the middle of 53 he, with nearly all his army, fell at Carrhae. It was one of the greatest in the long list of appalling disasters which mark the Roman military annals. But the army organization was still, and for long after, sound at the core, and misfortunes could always be retrieved. The moralists were fond



By permission of L. H. Lefevre & Son, London, Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the Original Engraving. From the painting by Sir L. Alma Tadema, O.M., R.A.

A ROMAN SCULPTURE GALLERY.

It is probable that while the early Roman art was the culmination of that which flourished under the Hellenistic monarchies, it was succeeded by an outburst of genuinely Roman effort, which reached its best period in the reliefs and portrait-sculpture of the Flavian epoch, and later in monuments of the style exemplified by the Imperial columns.



GLADIATORIAL AND OTHER ARMS AND ARMOUR.

Reading from left to right from the top: Two anatomical breastplates on either side of a gladiator's helmet showing an episode in the Trojan War, found at Herculaneum. Four bronze gladiatorial helmets from Herculaneum. Two examples of horse armour (breast), with two pieces of gladiators' armour between. In centre a sword (lacking handle) and scabbard bearing medallion of the Emperor Tiberius. Bottom row: Four gladiatorial greaves from Herculaneum, with two pieces of horse armour (head) between.

All the objects are in the Museo Nazionale, Naples (photos by Ed. Brogi), except the sword and scabbard, which is in the British Museum (photo by Mansell).

of using the fall of Crassus to enforce a lesson against the "accursed hunger after gold" which had marked this man's life. When his head was brought to the Parthian conqueror, he filled its mouth in derision with molten gold.

Some reforms were embodied in statutes in 55, but they were ineffectual, and public disorder grew worse than ever. The story is tedious and unedifying. Clodius continued to be protagonist. Several times the new year opened without any of the higher magistrates having been elected. An important event was the death of Pompey's wife Julia, Caesar's daughter, in 54. It snapped a strong link binding Pompey to Caesar. Later writers, like the poet Lucan, were wont to treat it as a primary cause of the subsequent civil war. There was clamour for some strong hand to sweep away political brigandage



Painted specially for this work

[By Watson Charlton.]

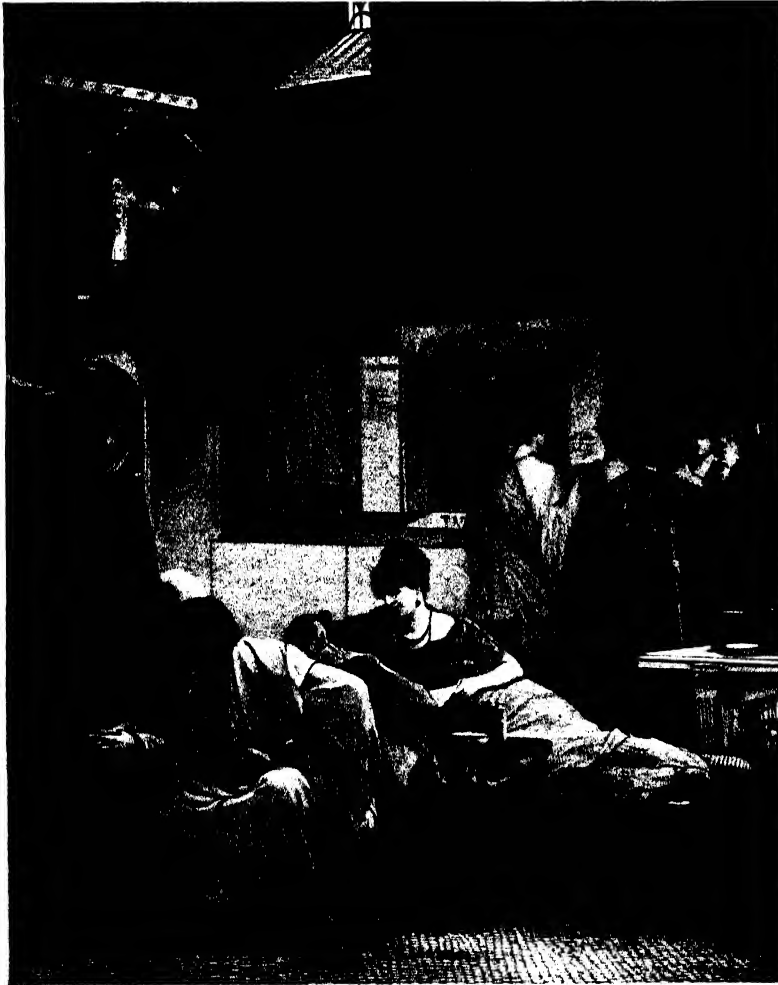
SPARTACUS ON VESUVIUS, 73 B.C.

While the war in Spain was drawing to a close a formidable rising took place in Italy. Spartacus, a Thracian gladiator, persuaded a number of his fellow-bondsmen to join him in breaking loose. He took up a strong position on Mount Vesuvius, and being joined by slaves and outlaws of all descriptions, was soon at the head of a formidable army, which easily routed a Roman force sent against it, and was not crushed until two years later.

from the city. At last, on the 18th of January in 52, when no consuls for the year had been elected, Clodius met his death on the Appian Way at the hands of Milo, who for years had rivalled him as a leader of gladiators and other armed ruffians, acting in the interests of the Senate. The body of Clodius was burned by a mob in the Roman forum, when the Senate-house took fire and was destroyed. Pompey was elected consul without a colleague. His position had no parallel in the history of the Republic, both in this and in some other respects. There had never been a greater concentration of authority in one man's hands. Extensive powers were given him by a *Senatus consultum ultimum*. By virtue of it he enlisted troops which took part in the civil war later. His great office of superintendent of the corn supply had not expired. Caesar, in some deeply interesting chapters of his "Civil War," gives an account of his grievances against Pompey and the Senate. He lays particular stress on the fact that Pompey governed Spain, with a large army, through subordinates. No man had ever before

been consul in Rome and at the same time pro-consul controlling a province with a large standing army. It was an anticipation of the Imperial system.

Pompey now passed some drastic measures for the punishment of riot and other crimes. Milo and a large number of others were driven into exile. Caesar's camp was for these a sort of Alsatia, where all found a refuge and a welcome, and often a largess. Caesar ever made friends of the Mammon of un-righteousness. After some months Pompey procured the election of a second consul. Now it became



By permission of L. H. Lefevre & Son, London, Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the Original Engraving. From the painting by Sir L. Alma Tadema, O.M., R.A.

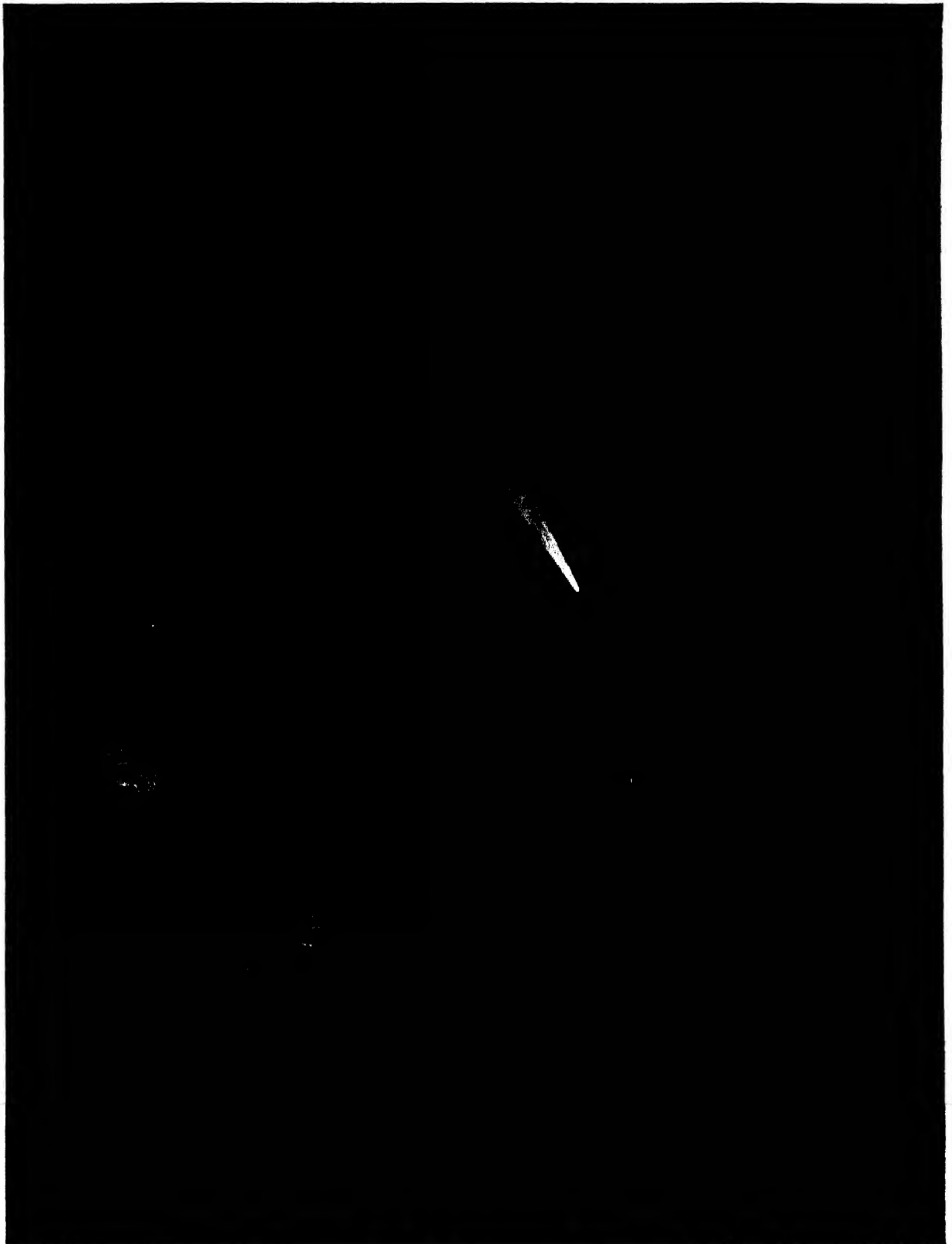
A ROMAN PICTURE GALLERY.

With the great fortunes that had been amassed, first by Senatorial rulers and afterwards by the favourites of the Triumvirs, it was natural that art in many shapes should be cultivated by them and their successors under the Empire. The best Roman art was greatly influenced by the Greek masters, whose pictures were eagerly collected.

we can trace the course of events at this time almost day by day. The wild hopes of Pompey's supporters, who yearned after a repetition of the violent régime of Sulla, made conciliation impossible. In the early days of January in the following year the crisis came. Pompey was appointed general for the war. Tribunes who tried to exercise their constitutional right of veto were driven out. Caesar was able to present a plausible case for himself as the wronged party. He made an almost unopposed march through Italy, but failed to catch Pompey, who on the 17th of March left Brundisium for Greece. Great was the amazement of his followers at his unpreparedness. He had even left the state treasure to fall into Caesar's hands. Caesar did not immediately follow him. He turned aside to crush the formidable

evident that he and Caesar were drifting apart. The words "civil war" were no longer whispered, but loudly spoken in public places. Propositions began to be brought forward in the Senate to terminate Caesar's command and to cripple him for the coming contest. They were all frustrated by the veto of Caesar's friends among the tribunes. It was long before Pompey would give any open aid to the movement. Although he had great qualities, sincerity in speech was never among them. Caesar's aim was to be allowed to retain some or all of his armed forces till he entered upon office as consul in the year 48. A statute had conferred on him the privilege of becoming a candidate for office without being present in the capital. This his enemies tried to override. Meanwhile Caesar was dazzling the world by his series of victories. The last great struggle, when the heroic Vercingetorix united nearly all Gaul against Rome, was ended at Alesia. The Gauls submitted willingly after that to the Roman rule.

Many futile attempts at conciliation were made during the year 50. The burgesses and the senators alike repeatedly showed their desire for the disarmament of both the rivals. In Cicero's "Letters"



From the painting by Sir R. J. Poynter, P.R.A.

by permission of the Manchester Art Gallery

"THE IDES OF MARCH."

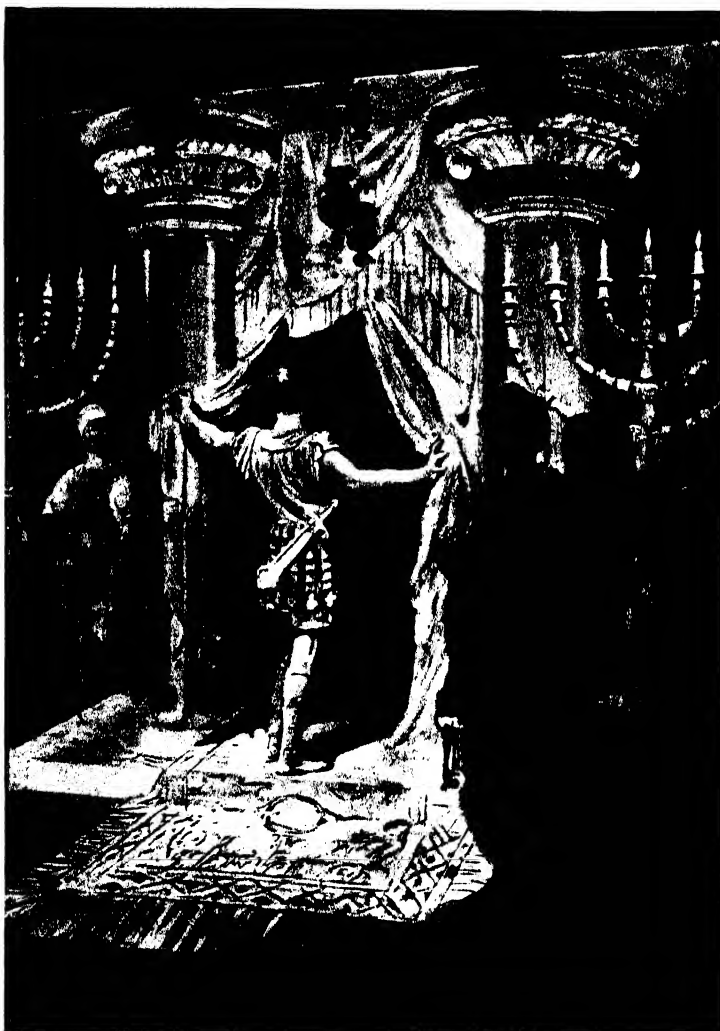
The persistent warnings given to Julius Cæsar by the augurs as to the fatefulness of "The Ides of March" for him, had rendered his wife Calpurnia highly nervous for his safety. She is seen at the Palace entrance pointing to, and excitedly discussing with him, the dreaded significance of the mysterious comet, which appeared flashing brightly in the heavens previous to his death. Julius Cæsar was assassinated on 15th March, 44 B.C.

force under Pompey's officers in Spain. This was quickly accomplished. On the way back he received the submission of the great Greek city of Massilia (Marseilles), which underwent severe punishment for taking the losing side. At the beginning of 48 he sailed for Greece. The magnificent fleet which Pompey controlled missed its opportunities. In two detachments Caesar's forces made the crossing unmolested. The main part of Pompey's army consisted of a motley host drawn from Greece and the East, while Caesar had a great advantage in the homogeneity of his army, mainly Roman. He was also loyally served by his subordinates, while Pompey was harassed by clamour and dissensions among the great gathering of prominent men who were in his camp. On the 9th of August Caesar won the crowning victory at Pharsalus. Pompey had great resources still, but made no attempt to concentrate them. He fled to Egypt, where he was assassinated. Caesar followed with an inadequate contingent and for many months was held in check at Alexandria. Not till 45 was all the Roman world conquered. The last stands of the Pompeians were made in Africa and in Spain. After his defeat at Thapsus, in Africa, in the year 46, Cato the Stoic put an end to his own life, consoled by the reasoning about death which Plato had placed in the mouth of Socrates. In March, 45, Caesar won the final victory of Munda in Spain, after surmounting the greatest perils he ever encountered.

Caesar's rule was like that of Sulla, a legalized despotism under the title of dictator, based ultimately on the army. He had neutralized much opposition by a policy of great though not unvarying clemency towards those who had opposed him in the field. But he unwisely flouted the prejudices of the men who were attached to old Republican forms. He welcomed showers of un-republican distinctions for which the precedents were drawn from the partially orientalized Greek kingdoms in the East. He was content to pose as a more than mortal being.

He degraded the Senate by passing into it numbers of unworthy members, and treated it with disdain. Caesar was the destroyer of the Republic; no difficult task, for it had been tottering for a long period. But was he, as is commonly said, the founder of the Empire? His life was too short for the development of a new order of things. But it is surprising that we have no indications that he seriously thought over the great problems of reconstruction which Augustus triumphantly solved.

Caesar decided once for all that the task of Romanizing the western half of the empire should be undertaken, and that the great idea of Gaius Gracchus should be realized. From this time onward



Painted specially for this work

[By A. C. Conrade.]

POMPEY IN THE TEMPLE AT JERUSALEM.

In 64 B.C. Pompey was called in to act as mediator between rival claimants to the throne of Judaea. But the Jews refused to admit his arbitration, and Pompey was obliged to attack Jerusalem. He entered the city after a siege of three months, and behaved with great mildness, although he horrified the Jews by entering the Temple and the Holy of Holies.

numerous settlements of veterans and civilians were made in Gaul, Spain, Africa, and other western provinces, with full Roman rights from the first. As the influence of these settlers spread, native cities received first the Latin, and, later, the Roman status. But while the Roman type of civilization was spread over the West, the Greek type was allowed to prevail in the East. Some Roman colonies were founded there, but they became, like Corinth, rapidly Hellenized, and Rome resigned herself to a division between East and West which has left a deep mark on all subsequent history. When Roman citizenship was conferred on the eastern cities, it produced little or no effect on their culture. The great movement of ancient civilization was towards the breaking up of tribal groups and the creation of cities among which the tribal territory was divided.

Some salutary isolated reforms were carried through by Caesar. He passed judiciary laws; re-organized the distribution of corn to the needy of the capital, reducing the expense to the exchequer;



From the fresco by Maccari

[In the Senate House at Rome.]

CICERO DENOUNCING CATILINE

On 13th of January, 62 B.C., Cicero, who was preparing evidence against Catiline, a profligate noble suspected of plotting against the state, narrowly escaped assassination at the hands of the conspirators' agents. He hastily convened the Senate; Catiline was bold enough to appear, but was avoided by everyone. Cicero, rising from his seat, delivered his famous First Oration against Catiline, which roused the Senate to fury.

gave the Roman franchise to the Transpadane district; enacted a statute for the administration of justice there; and another affecting the internal government of the city of Rome and other Italian municipalities; reformed the Roman calendar, which had fallen into disorder. The last six months of his life seem to have been chiefly devoted to gigantic engineering projects and to preparation for a new war against Parthia. Legions brought together for this purpose were actually in the neighbourhood of Rome and others in Macedonia at the moment of his death, which occurred on the "Ides of March" in the year 44.

The story of Caesar's assassination has been made familiar by Shakespeare's noble tragedy. Some fifty or sixty men of rank were the conspirators. Among them were many trusted associates of Caesar; some had been Pompeians whom he had spared and taken into his service. Their action cannot be judged from a modern standpoint. Tyrannicide had been glorified for ages in the schools both of Greece and of Rome, and had been approved by popular sympathy. Philosophic reasons swayed men like



By permission of Messrs. Fiorillo.]

GLADIATORS ENTERING THE ARENA.

Gladiators were first introduced into Rome from the Etruscans, and are said to have had their origin in the custom of killing captives at funeral celebrations. The first gladiatorial combats we hear of took place in B.C. 264, at the funeral of one of the Brutus family. Under the late Republic and Empire the passion of the Romans for this amusement rose to great heights, and the number of gladiators who fought on some occasions appears incredible. After Trajan's triumph over the Dacians more than ten thousand were exhibited.

[Copyright by Vasarri, 1909.]



Painted specially for this work]

[By A. Tyler.

THE IMPEACHMENT OF VERRES

The Sicilians, who had for three years been oppressed by the Praetor Verres, begged Cicero, lately returned from holding a quaestorship in their island, to make a formal accusation of extortion against the tyrant. Cicero, knowing that powerful friends of Verres were working to postpone the trial, stated his case with as little delay as possible, and called witnesses. Verres, overwhelmed by their evidence, went into voluntary exile.

Brutus. Most of the actors were honest, but there is a base admixture in every conspiracy. The folly of the assassins is even more striking than their guilt. They took no account of the army at the gates of the city, against which they could not marshal a single cohort. They imagined that the old Republican system would revive magically if the tyrant were put out of the way. But they soon found, as Cicero says, that though the tyrant was dead, the tyranny remained. A great proof that Caesar had lost his popularity is afforded by the fact that his soldiers made no attempt to avenge his death. For the moment the universal cry was for conciliation. Presently there was a revulsion of feeling. Many of the educated class regretted the passing of one who, however unscrupulous his advance had been, was a great general, a great orator and an accomplished man of letters. The lower orders were attracted by lavish gifts to the citizens at large which were ordered by his will. A sort of altar to his memory was erected, and much frequented. Mark Antony, who had, with intervals of disfavour, been Caesar's henchman, and was now consul, cleverly took advantage of every opportunity to rouse enmity against the conspirators, although a formal amnesty for their offence had been declared. He was in possession of Caesar's papers, and when the Senate voted that all Caesar's ordinances should have validity, used them with great effect and no scruples concerning forgery. Within three months Rome was too hot to hold the conspirators. It was clear that they would need to fight, if they were to have any chance of restoring the old Republic. Brutus and Cassius went to the East to seize control of provinces and raise an army. The only conspirator who for the moment held command of a force was Decimus Brutus in Cisalpine Gaul. Cicero now took a leading part in the opposition to Antony. The situation was complicated by the appearance of a "marvellous boy," as Cicero called him, of nineteen years of age, Octavian, Caesar's great nephew and heir and adopted son. With all the chances apparently against him, he by consummate skill and the favour of Caesar's veterans compelled the Senate to accept him as its champion.

against Antony. The consuls of the year 43 with Octavian defeated Antony near Mutina, and drove him north. Decimus Brutus met with his death at the hands of his mutinous soldiers. Octavian now became master of the Senate, which was forced to grant this youth of twenty the consulship. Before long he was able to pass a severe law for the punishment of his uncle's murderers and all who had favoured them. But he was still in a perilous position. The way out was the compact entered into between Octavian, Antony and Lepidus, who in November, 43, made themselves Triumvirs for five years from the beginning of 42. Lepidus had been a leading officer of Caesar, and since his death governor of southern Gaul (Gallia Narbonensis) and northern Spain (Hispania Citerior). He had all along inclined to Antony's side, but in character and ability was much the weakest of the three. The power of the Triumvirs was conferred by a so-called legislative act, and was as despotic as that which Sulla and Caesar had wielded.

The first deed of the new rulers was to sacrifice by proscription the lives of three hundred senators and two thousand members of the equestrian body, and to confiscate their property. Sulla's savagery was outdone. Cicero, to whom Octavian owed no small part of his success, died bravely. One of the sufferers was his old enemy Verres, the subject of the brilliant "Verrine Orations." Thrilling tales were told in after-times of the adventures of the few who escaped at the moment, to be pardoned later. Paralysis fell on the ordinary life of the city, and the tyrants ordered the burgesses to show their usual joy in the public exhibitions, on pain of death. Huge exactions in money were required from all inhabitants of Italy, without distinction, who possessed a certain amount of property. The populace had been eager to pay to Caesar divine honours. Now the first official step was taken to bring in the cult of deceased emperors, which easily led to the recognition of the living emperor as more than human. Caesar was



Painted specially for this work

THE MARRIAGE OF POMPEY AND JULIA.

[By H. M. Burton.]

Caesar, whose consulship was drawing to a close, determined to provide for his future power. To cement his union with Pompey, he offered him the hand of his young and beautiful daughter Julia. Pompey accepted the offer, and the marriage was celebrated with great splendour.

declared not "deus," be it observed, but "divus," which represents the Greek "heros," a divinized mortal. Herakles was the prototype of the class.

Meanwhile the champions of liberty, Brutus and Cassius, had gathered together, not without recourse to tyrannic methods, a great host in the East to meet the forces of the Triumvirs. Two battles were fought at Philippi, in Macedonia, in the autumn of 42, and in both the Republicans were defeated. After the first, Cassius took his own life, and Brutus followed his example after the second. Many members of old and noted Republican families fell. The refugees mostly fled to Sicily, of which Sextus Pompeius,



Painted specially for this work

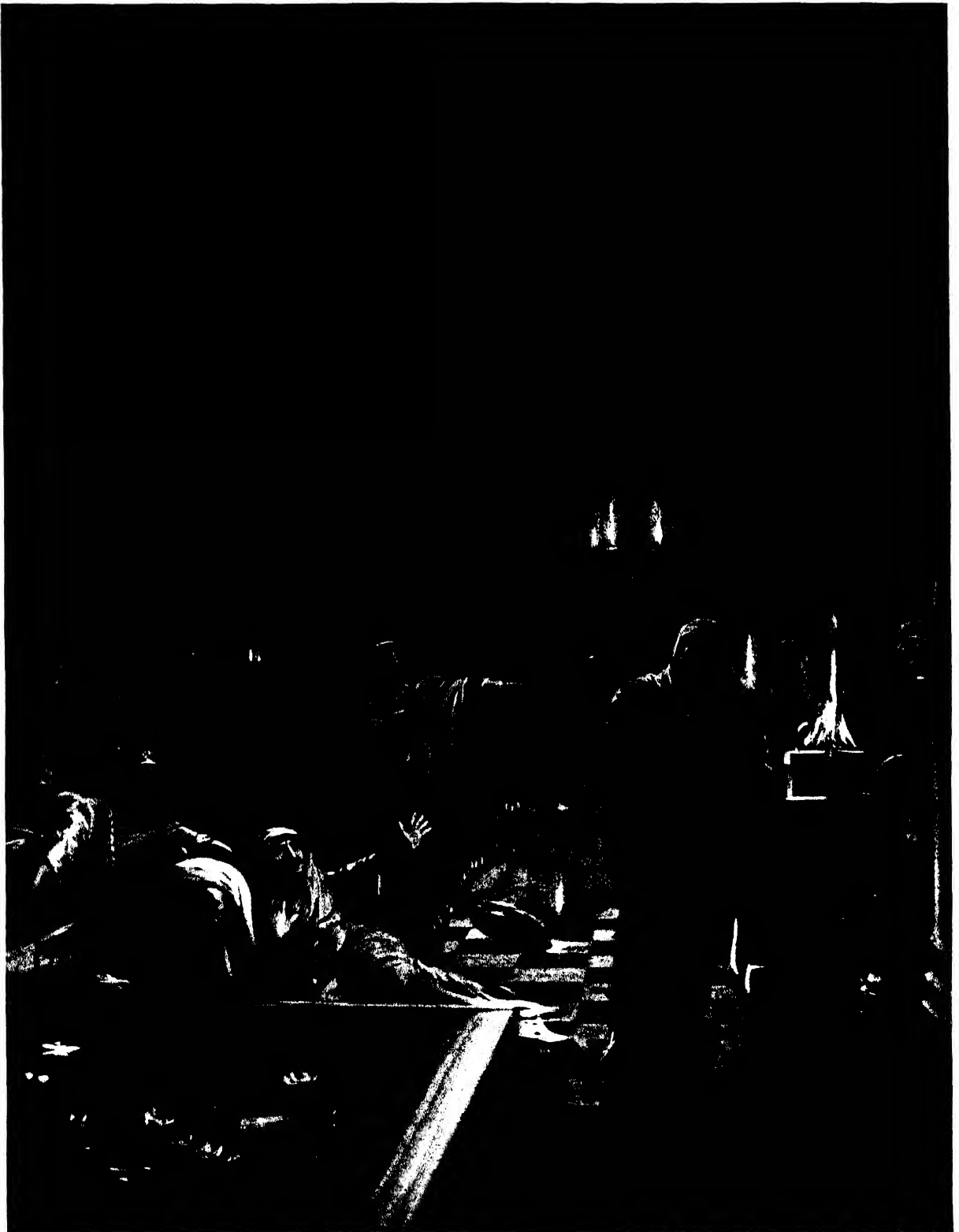
[By Watson Charlton.]

THE DEPARTURE OF CRASSUS FOR THE EAST.

Crassus, when about to start from Rome to lead an army against the Parthians, an expedition extremely unpopular with his fellow-citizens, found unexpected opposition. The people violently opposed his departure, and, when at length he reached the city-gates, he found the fierce Ateius pouring libations and incense on a brazier, and uttering curses against him and his army, curses which were to be terribly fulfilled.

son of the great Pompey, had contrived to possess himself, with an army partly composed of slaves, and a fleet which made him formidable.

Antony and Octavian now agreed to partition the Roman world, with little regard to their partner Lepidus. He was a feeble character and suspected of disloyalty. The region of the Po, which had constituted the province of Cisalpine Gaul, was now finally incorporated with Italy. Though Octavian was left in possession of Italy, Antony had much the best of the bargain. He might reasonably hope that his friend would find the difficulty of governing Italy to be insuperable. All the Eastern provinces were left to him, while he had a share in the Western. Octavian undertook to combat Pompeius and to face the perilous task of settling the veterans of Philippi, who numbered one hundred and seventy thousand, in military colonies. Eighteen cities of Italy had to yield part of their estates for the purpose. Compensation was promised, but probably never given. Great trouble came on Octavian in 41, when



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]

THE SACRILEGE OF CLODIUS.

Caesar, during his praetorship, had lent his house for the celebration of the mysteries of the Bona Dea, rites at which it was not lawful for any but women to be present. A young Roman named Clodius contrived to enter the sacred precincts disguised as a singing-girl. He was discovered by his voice, and tried for sacrilege. Caesar divorced his wife in consequence of the affair, but professed ignorance of all that had passed. "Why then," he was asked, "have you put away your wife?" A question to which he gave the famous reply: "Caesar's wife must be above suspicion."



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

THE MURDER OF POMPEY.

Pompey, sometime master of the Roman world, came to his end through an act of atrocious treachery. After Pharsalia he determined to take ship to Egypt, where he had good reason to expect help. But those in power in that country feared the results of his presence there, and, enticing him ashore without his friends, murdered him as he stepped out of the boat.

L. Antonius, brother of Mark Antony, and consul, conspired with Antony's wife Fulvia to stir up revolt, so that Antony might be lured to Italy to crush Octavian. Fulvia's chief object may have been to draw Antony out of the toils of the famed Egyptian queen Cleopatra. The "Perusine War" ensued, so-called from the long siege of Perusia (Perugia), where the rebels were beset. The commanders of Antony's western provinces failed to relieve the siege, and when it ended, in 40, fled to join Antony. Octavian now pacified Lepidus by conceding to him the African provinces.

It seemed as if conflict must at once break out between Octavian and Antony, who came to Brundisium in 40, in hostile guise. But Octavian's envoys, one of whom was Maecenas, his great peace minister, obtained from the representatives of Antony a very favourable treaty. The poet Horace accompanied the mission and has left a humorous description of the journey. Antony ceded his western possessions, including Dalmatia. Scodra (Scutari) was the dividing-point between the two dominions. Africa was left to Lepidus. Probably the threatening aspect of affairs in the East, especially the dread of a Parthian war, induced Antony to make the sacrifice. A part of the bargain was the marriage of Octavia, the sister of Octavian, with Antony, which soon followed. Octavia's first husband, Marcellus, and Antony's wife, Fulvia, had recently died. In the following year 39 there came the famous meeting between Antony, Octavian and Pompeius at Misenum, of which a brilliant picture is drawn in Shakespeare's *Antony and Cleopatra*. Great concessions were made to Pompeius. To him were allotted Sicily, Sardinia and the Peloponnese for five years. The fugitives who had taken refuge with him were amnestied, and other boons were granted. For Octavian the relief at the moment was great. Italy was seething with discontent, partly caused by the powerful fleet of Pompeius, which raided the coasts and menaced Rome with famine by the interruption of commerce. But the peace was hollow. In order

to propitiate Pompeius, Octavian had married a sister of the wife of Pompeius. He divorced her in the same year in which the treaty of Misenum was concluded, and soon wedded the celebrated Livia, whose husband T. Claudius Nero complacently transferred her. Pompeius began war again in 38, ostensibly because Antony had shown bad faith. There was a long struggle, which tried the resources of Octavian to the uttermost. In 37 Antony came to Tarentum with Octavia, who brought about a fresh compact between her husband and brother. Antony was to aid Octavian on the sea, where Pompeius was too strong for him, while Octavian was to send a strong force to the East for the Parthian war. The Triumvirate was extended for another period. Pompeius was not finally defeated till the following year, when he fled, only to find his death in Greece. The last thirteen years of his life had been spent in incessant warfare, and his fibre, never fine, had been roughened and hardened to such a degree that co-operation with him was impossible. The victory of Octavian was won for him by his close friend Agrippa, a commander equally great on sea and on land.

Having rid himself of Pompeius, Octavian deposed Lepidus, whose loyalty he had often suspected. The troops of Lepidus deserted him, and he was interned in Italy, but allowed to retain the high priestly office of Pontifex Maximus, to which he had been elected when Caesar's death left it vacant. The treatment of Lepidus gave Antony a grievance, and from that time onwards the bonds of alliance were more and more strained, until they cracked. Octavian had marvellously surmounted the perils which had confronted him when he undertook the government of Italy, and his strength steadily grew. Antony was detested all over the East, because of his cruel exactions, which far outdid all those, great enough,



From the painting by Sir L. Alma Tadema, O.M., R.A.]

[By permission of the Berlin Photographic Co., Ltd.]

THE SHRINE OF VENUS.

The shrine here shown is in the interior of a Roman hairdresser's emporium. At the back may be seen customers before the counter of the shop, whilst passing an altar of Venus is a matron who has just deposited an offering of a flower upon the marble slab.

which Roman commanders had before inflicted. The war against Parthia had involved him in losses and disgraces. His treatment of Octavia, noblest of Roman matrons, whom he neglected for Cleopatra's sake, was odious to the Roman world. Octavian cleverly played upon this feeling, and all Italy accepted him as her champion against one who had divested himself of everything Roman, and had passed into the state of a licentious Oriental despot. The feeling of the time is reflected in the poetry of Horace and Virgil. Some of Antony's closest friends drifted away from him. Early in 32 his misdeeds were openly debated in the Senate. His response was to divorce Octavia. A conviction grew



Photo by]

A MURAL PAINTING, POMPEII.

[Mansell & Co.

Mural paintings, probably a new thing in the Augustan age, constituted a favourite form of house decoration in the first century A.D. Episodes from Greek mythology formed favourite subjects. Many of these works of art were as well known to the Romans as the masterpieces of painting are known to us. The Rape of Europa is a notable example of these beautiful frescoes.

from the first contest between the party of Sulla and the party of Marius, there had been few unmarked by wars, civil or foreign, which had desolated most parts of the empire. For these harassed lands Octavian, or Augustus as he became, ushered in a time of rest and reform and recovery, which lasted for about a century. He loved, above all things, to pose as a prince of peace. A great altar erected in Rome by the Senate in 13 B.C. to honour the "Augustan Peace" has survived in part to our time. Augustus, at the end of his life, boasted that during his reign the temple of Janus had been closed thrice. The first of these occasions was after the battle of Actium. No wonder that the poets welcomed the beginning of a new golden age. It is true that the intervals of actual peace proved to be brief. The reign was practically filled with wars; but these were waged

that if Antony should be successful, the capital of the world would be not Rome, but Alexandria. Not only Italy, but all the western provinces showed enthusiasm in Octavian's cause. On the second day of September in the year 31 was fought one of the most momentous battles in the world's history, when Agrippa with his fleet won a splendid victory at Actium on the coast of Epirus. The East was in no mood to help Antony to retrieve the disaster. On the first day of August in 30 Octavian appeared before Alexandria, whither Cleopatra and Antony had fled. Both took their lives by their own acts, and Octavian was left undisputed ruler of the ancient world. Egypt was from this time a Roman province, and the richest of all.

Some time was occupied in receiving the submission of the East, which was eager to shower honours on the conqueror and to treat him as semi-divine. Octavian did not reach Rome till the late summer of 29, when he celebrated that splendid triumph of which Virgil sang, as well as other poets of the time. The world acclaimed him less as a conqueror than as one who had made war to cease. In the fifty-six years which passed



Photos by

THE STREET OF ABUNDANCE, POMPEII

The streets of Pompeii were paved with thick blocks of lava, and the ruts made by chariot wheels may still be seen. The streets were narrow, the widest being not more than twenty five feet. Stepping-stones across the street may be seen.



[Manuell & Co.]

THE AMPHITHEATRE, POMPEII.

The majority of Pompeians were a leisured and pleasure-loving class. They therefore kept a school of gladiators for their amusement. On one occasion a dispute arose in this amphitheatre, when so many were killed that Nero forbade the continuance of gladiatorial shows in the city.



Photos by

THE HOUSE OF THE VETIL, POMPEII.

This villa has been named from some signet rings of freedmen, found in the peristyle. Every room is lavishly ornamented. One which perhaps was the library is panelled in black with a light and fantastic ornament.



[Manuell & Co.]

THE DRESSING-ROOM OF THE STABIAN BATHS, POMPEII.

The Stabian baths—200 B.C.—are the largest and oldest in Pompeii. The dressing-room or apodyterium of the men's baths was elegantly decorated in marble. The niches were provided for bathers' clothes.



Photo by]

MURAL PAINTINGS, POMPEII

[Mansell & Co.

Painting in Italy was, at all events in its early stages, dependent on Greek models, as the frescoes on the walls of Etruscan chamber-tombs indicate. The art enjoyed a great popularity, and Pliny relates that Julius Caesar paid £20,000 for the "Ajax and Medea" of Timomachus.

against unsubdued barbarians on or beyond the frontiers. The empire was greatly extended, to make it more secure.

From the time when war was declared against Antony, Octavian had exercised a boundless authority by virtue of a commission which was confessedly exceptional. Now a more permanent basis had to be found for the government of the Empire. He seems to have laid aside some portion of his privileges soon after his return to Rome in August of the year 29. But a great prearranged drama of reconstruction was played out in 27. He professed to surrender all his powers into the hands of the Senate and the Roman people. To all appearance he did not for a moment abandon the unified command of the whole army, round which the whole fabric of the new form of government was built up. Three days after the great renunciation, the title of Augustus was bestowed upon him. The word had religious associations, and it seemed to lift him somewhat above the human level. It increased the prestige of one who was already privileged to describe himself as the son of the divinized Caesar. By an extremely clever stroke of policy, Augustus now divided the control of the provinces, in name at least, between himself and the Senate, giving it the older and mostly peaceful portions of the Roman dominions. For himself he kept the newer domains on the frontiers, where the army was exclusively stationed. No senatorial province had a garrison excepting Africa.

This division of the Roman dominions has led in modern times to the idea that the emperor and the Senate were equal partners in the government of the empire, which has been described as a "Dyarchy." Such was not the view of the men who lived in the time. They knew that the Senate was definitely shorn of most of its old power, and that for the enjoyment of what remained it was dependent on the imperial will. The emperor had many devices for keeping the Senate in subjection. The difference between emperor and emperor lay in the degree to which the actual power was used. One who only interfered

moderately was supposed to have had regard for "liberty." The overriding character of the imperial authority and its intimate connection with the army were made evident by the appearance of "Imperator" as an integral part of each emperor's name, taking precedence of other parts. Naturally, the prerogative of declaring war and making peace passed from the burgesses in their assemblies to the emperor, and with it the entire control of foreign policy, bringing supremacy over the status of all cities, peoples and dependent princes within the Roman dominions, whether these were situated in senatorial or imperial provinces. By a crafty arrangement of finance, Augustus contrived to have some revenue derivable from the senatorial provinces as well as the imperial. His financial agent (*procurator*) was a useful check on the senatorial governor.

Vast was the change in the position of the Senate, as those felt who looked back upon its glorious past. Some pretence was kept up that the imperial authority grew naturally out of the old Republican system. The emperor's "imperium" was nominally conferred by the Senate, and for a limited period. As a sop to opinion, Augustus adopted in addition to "Imperator," another title, for ordinary use in the city, and in face of the Senate and burgesses, that of "Princeps," literally, "first citizen." He also had the wisdom to choose for governors in all his own provinces, excepting Egypt and a few of the less important, members of the Senate. And a Senator was in command of each legion. Augustus certainly avoided the greatest error of Caesar, and found for the Senate a place of some dignity in his new system.



From the painting]

[By J. D. Court.]

ANTONY'S FUNERAL ORATION OVER THE BODY OF CAESAR.

The body of Julius Caesar was brought into the Forum on the day of his funeral on a magnificent bier. There Antony, as consul, rose to pronounce the Funeral Oration. The memorable speech which Shakespeare puts into Antony's mouth gives a lively notion of the art used and the impression produced by the orator. The people were roused to a fury against the assassins, who were unable to obtain support in Rome, and only escaped from the city with difficulty.

From 32 to 23 Augustus was consul in each year. In 23 it was definitely decided that the consulship should form no corner-stone of the imperial power. There was conferred upon Augustus, nominally by the people, what was known as "tribunician authority" (*tribunicia potestas*). Already in 36 his person had been made inviolable, like that of the old tribunes and of Caesar, but no clear political consequences had flowed from the grant. Now the definition of the "tribunician authority" conveyed to Augustus privileges like those of the tribunes, but transcending those of all the ten, who now sank into comparative unimportance. This new life-long office gave to Augustus all and more than the potency of the Tribunate when its tenants had been in any one year of the same mind. It enabled him to control legislation, the proceedings of the Senate, and the administration of the law. It also connected him with the history of the Roman democracy, and enabled him to play the rôle of protector of the common



Painted specially for this work

THE BATTLE OF PHILIPPI, 42 B.C.

[By J. Bryan.]

The battle of Philippi, which was the death-blow to the Republican party, was fought near the coast of Macedonia. The Republican forces occupied two hills distant about a mile from each other, which were joined by entrenchments. The enemy was on the lower ground in a less favourable position, but Brutus and Cassius made the mistake of attacking, and were eventually defeated, both perishing on the battle-field.

people. It became the custom when a new emperor came to the throne that he should receive the "imperium proconsulare" at the hands of the Senate, and the "tribunicia potestas" from a pretended assembly of the people. These two labels proclaimed a man emperor. Many other rights were obtained by the rulers, the operation of which in the course of three centuries changed the imperial government into an unconcealed autocracy. In his private life, Augustus had delighted to act the part of a bourgeois monarch. Diocletian and his successors, in the third century, were even as Xerxes and Darius, tyrants of an Oriental type. It must not be supposed that the earlier emperors were required to justify any act by referring it to a particular grant of authority. They treated their rights as an undivided whole, and the name for this whole was "imperium."

The wars of Augustus greatly enlarged the empire, and added to its security. The unsubdued tribes within the Italian peninsula, the Ligurians and mountain races in the valleys all round the Alps, were

Painted specially for this work

THE MEETING AT MISENUM

During the winter of 40-39 B.C. Sextus Pompeius blockaded Italy so closely that Rome was threatened with famine. The Triumvirs therefore decided to temporize by inviting him to enter their league. Sextus met them at Misenum, and a council was held on board his galley, after which a magnificent banquet was provided. In the course of the festivities Menas, one of Sextus' officers, is said to have whispered in his leader's ear: "Shall I cut the cables and make you master of the Roman world?" Sextus rejected the suggestion with the characteristic words: "You should have done it without asking me."

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]



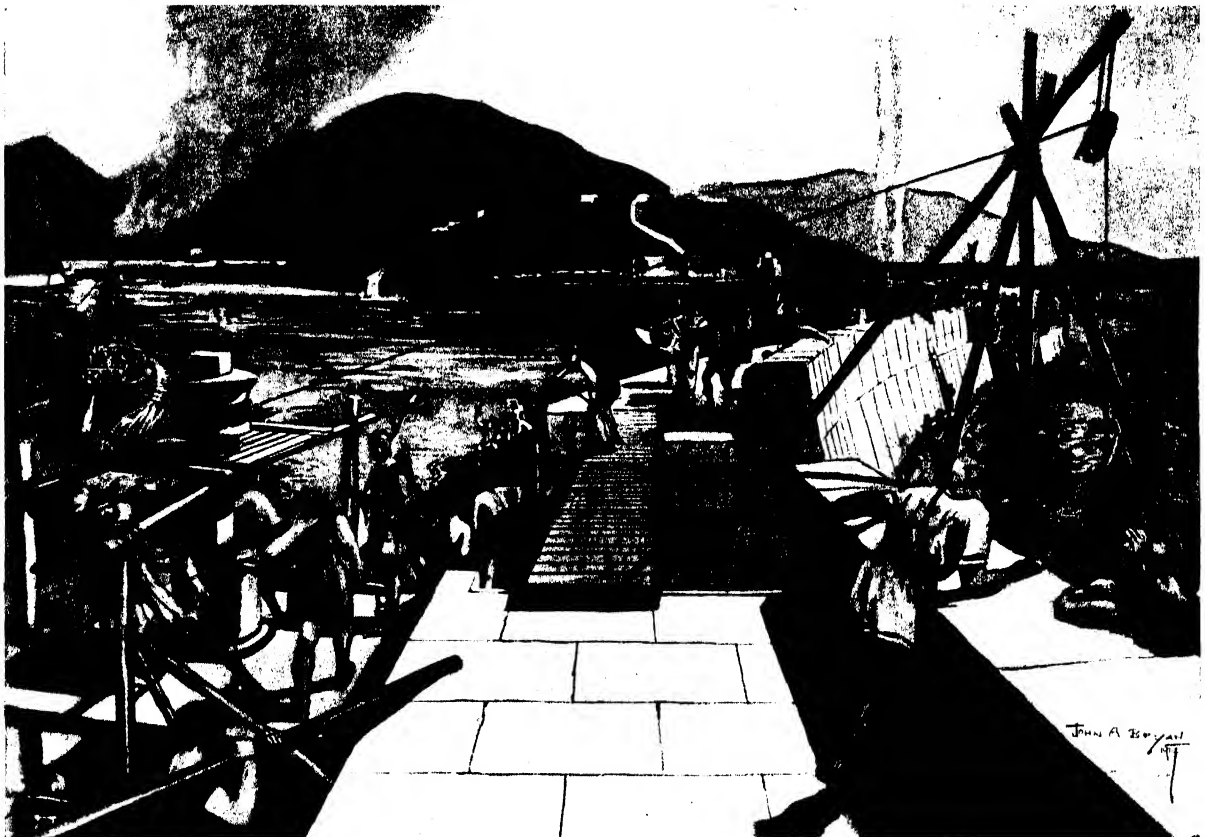
By permission of Louis Wolff & Co., Ltd., London, W.

THE COURT OF ANTONY AND CLEOPATRA.

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the large Engraving.]

Soon after meeting Octavian at Tarentum in 37 B.C. the fickle Antony abruptly quitted a wife who was too good for him and returned to the East. From this time forth he made no attempts to break the silken chain of Cleopatra's enchantments. To this period belong the tales of luxurious indulgence which are known to every reader. The brave and hardy soldier was ~~and~~ no more. He became an indolent voluptuary, pleased by childish amusements. Encouraged by the absolute submission of her lover, Cleopatra dreamed of winning, by means of Antony, the imperial crown which she had vainly sought for Caesar.

conquered and "pacated," as the Romans phrased it, by the most drastic methods, when they offered resistance, by massacre, sale into slavery and transplantation. The final pacification of Spain was effected in a similar manner. It was a task which had taken the Romans two centuries to accomplish, at an enormous cost in disasters. On the eastern side of the Adriatic, where the Romans had begun to establish themselves before the Hannibalic War, a great advance was made, especially in Dalmatia. The Roman outposts were early in the reign of Augustus pushed along the banks of the Save to the Danube, and, later, extensive conquests were made in that region. It was decided that the Elbe should be made the frontier of the empire to the east. Before the enterprise began, the great general Agrippa died, in 12 B.C. To him had been almost entirely due the victories of which Augustus could boast. From boyhood he had been the loyal friend and servant of Augustus, and his fame has been unduly overshadowed



Painted specially for this work

CONSTRUCTING THE PORTUS JULIUS

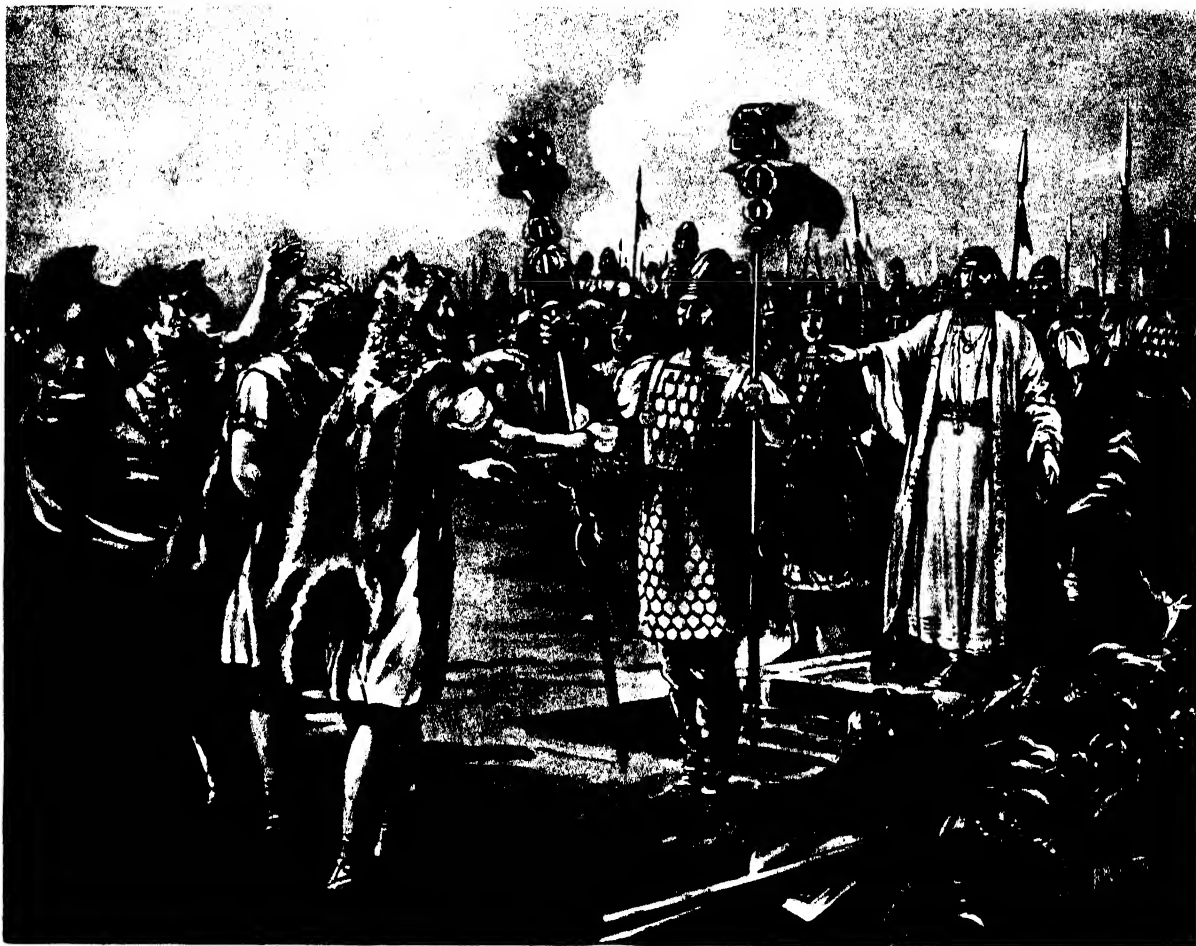
[By J. A. Bryan.]

The treaty between Sextus Pompeius and the Triumvirs did not last long. War was declared against him, the preparations for which were entrusted to Agrippa. A new harbour was constructed near Baiae, the celebrated Portus Julius, formed by connecting the inland lake Avernus with the Lake Lucrinus, and by strengthening the latter against the sea by an artificial dam.

by that of his master. The emperor's two stepsons, Tiberius and Drusus, were capable commanders, and in three campaigns met with much success. But Drusus, the more brilliant of the two, died in 9. A misunderstanding with the emperor withdrew Tiberius from the service from 6 B.C. to 4 A.D., and little was done in the interval. Roman armies had repeatedly marched through Germany and had reached the Elbe. But Germany was fated never to be Roman.

A great new combination of tribes had arisen, with its centre in Bohemia, under the command of a powerful chieftain, Maroboduus. The year 6 A.D. saw a desperate revolt of Dalmatians and Illyrians, who were now opposed by Tiberius. Had Maroboduus chosen to ally himself with the rebels, nothing could have saved Italy from invasion. But he made peace, and by 9 A.D., after strenuous fighting, one of the greatest perils that ever threatened Rome was overcome. The revolt was caused by the pressure of the tax-gatherer and recruiting officer on people only recently subdued. Almost at the moment of

victory a new and very formidable enemy appeared on the Rhine. Arminius, whom the historian Tacitus calls "without question the liberator of Germany," took the field with a great force drawn from several different nations. His education had been in Italy and he knew the Romans well. In 9 A.D. he was able to inflict a crushing defeat on Varus in the Teutoburg forest in northern Germany. The old emperor, in bitterness of soul, abandoned his dearest project and decreed that the boundary of the empire should be the Rhine from its mouths to the inlet of the Main. Once more the Roman good fortune had kept Maroboduus out of the field. In some sort Roman authority was established all along the Danube, which for many generations became a principal line of frontier. In the East the policy of Augustus was



Painted specially for this work]

PHRAATES RESTORING THE ROMAN STANDARDS.

[By H. M. Burton.]

Late in the year 21 B.C. Augustus went to regulate the East anew. In the next year his stepson Tiberius followed him with an army. The mere show of power induced Phraates, the Parthian king, to restore the standards captured from Crassus in 53 B.C. This diplomatic success was celebrated by the poet Horace as a splendid victory.

one of diplomacy rather than war. He did not come into conflict with the Parthians, but recovered from them the standards which, to the Roman disgrace, had been lost by Crassus. This success was celebrated by the Augustan poets and chroniclers as a mighty victory. In Africa the old realm of Numidia was added to the original province. Egypt was an acquisition of the utmost consequence. Its taxation greatly enriched the imperial exchequer and its corn supplied Rome and other towns in Italy.

It would have been quite impossible for the Romans to provide for the government in detail of their vast possessions. Every use was made of existing institutions in the provinces themselves. There was no attempt to enforce uniformity throughout the empire, even in the matter of taxation. Great realms, again, were left to the administration of native dynasties, as by the English in India, under strict imperial supervision. The many thousand municipalities within the dominions were allowed to



From the painting]

VIRGIL, HORACE AND VARIUS AT THE HOUSE OF MAECENAS.

[By Jélabert.

The name of Maecenas, the great statesman and at one time trusted minister of Augustus, has become a synonym for a patron of letters. He was immensely rich, and kept open table for men of parts and learning at his house on the Esquiline. Virgil, Horace, Varius and many others benefited by his munificence, Horace and Virgil each owing their comfortable homes to the generosity of their patron.



From the "Cambridge Latin Companion," edited by Sir John Sandys.]

[Photo from Italian Ministry of Public Instruction.]

RELIEF ON OUTSIDE WALL OF ARA PACIS AUGUSTAE.

The Ara Pacis Augustae was built by Augustus between the years of B.C. 13 and B.C. 9. The reliefs above are from the east half of the south side and are said to be the greatest achievements in art of the Augustan period. They show Greek influence in the manner of the composition, but the procession and the figures modelled are Roman.

a very large extent to conduct their own internal affairs. Some of these cities possessed very considerable territories. They were often made responsible for keeping in order large districts just outside their own domain, inhabited by tribes not yet sufficiently civilized to be brought within the sphere of civic government. There was as little interference as possible in the affairs of backward peoples. But as they became civilized and their towns grew in importance they were drawn within the municipal system. The Roman Empire has been described as a "vast network of municipalities." That was the goal which was sought but, though closely approached, was never fully attained. The Romanization of some regions, by the influence of colonization, proceeded with extraordinary rapidity. Half a century produced immense changes in southern Gaul, Spain and Africa. By the end of that time the Rhone Valley seemed almost like Italy, and the same may be said of great stretches of territory to the north-east of Italy, towards the Danube. The extension of Roman citizenship to whole cities must often have outstripped the progress of the Latin language, notably in the Greek East. Also, vast numbers of individuals obtained Roman civic privileges in one way or another, largely as a reward for military service. One of the greatest agencies in Romanization was the enormous extension, from the time of Augustus onwards, of the means of intercommunication. Magnificent roads, traceable still in innumerable places, were made in every province, generally by the hands of the soldiery. The civilizing effect of the Roman legions on the frontiers was very great. Evidences of the fact exist to a marvellous extent even to-day. One remarkable achievement of Augustus was the establishment of the cult of the deified emperors in the provinces as a real bond of union between them and Rome. It gave a means for expression of a common loyalty which was on the whole sincere; and the gatherings of notables afforded an opportunity for making representations to the authorities touching the welfare of the province.

It will be understood from the brief description given above that the imperial constitution carried within it from the first the seeds of despotism. The large liberty of local self-government with which it

started was continually narrowed. The system of protected native states did not last long. By the end of the first century all those of importance—Thrace, Cappadocia, Galatia, Mauretania and others—had been absorbed. The freedom of the municipalities, which in many cases was on a liberal scale, was gradually weakened. The inevitable tendency of the government towards autocracy can be traced in an almost unbroken line from reign to reign. When Nerva restored "liberty" on the death of Domitian in 96 A.D., his administration was far more centralized than that of Augustus had been. "Liberty" came to mean not self-government, but orderly government by a master whose caprices, if he chose to indulge in them, could be checked only by assassination. But precedents containing more and more of the essence of despotism gradually prevailed, until in the age of Diocletian the evolution found its destined end.

Augustus instituted a systematic survey of the whole empire and placed the results on record, so that the nature of the relations of the central authority with every city, prince and tribe should be plainly stated. The new great offices created by him were nearly all held by members not of the Senate, but of the equestrian body. According to old precedent, Italy, not being a province, could not be occupied by any part of the regular army. This principle was never broken through till the time of Septimius Severus at the end of the second century. But Augustus could not dispense with a military force at the centre. He was entitled, as commander-in-chief, following old Republican principle, to a body-guard, though a Republican general could not retain his guard after entering the city. Augustus developed this old institution and created the celebrated "Praetorian Guards," numbering nine thousand men, who were quartered close to the capital. Their commanders, the Prefects, were among the greatest officials. Two colleagues were at first at the head of the Praetorians, but Tiberius placed the charge in a single man's hands. The regular guard was supplemented by armed constabulary and police forces, so



Painted specially for this work

[By Felix Gordon.]

OID AT TOMI

In 9 A.D. the poet Ovid was suddenly banished by an imperial edict to Tomi, a town on the very border of the Empire, near the mouths of the Danube. The real cause of his exile is doubtful. The poet draws an affecting picture of the miseries to which he was exposed, complaining of the inhospitable soil and climate. The picture shows the poet being warned of approaching barbarians, incursions by whom were frequent.

that the emperor had close at hand in Rome a body sufficient to overawe the city. Sometimes it overawed the emperor himself. The "Prefect of the city" was also a great officer, answerable for order in the metropolis.

A large reform in the army system was carried through by Augustus. The civilized provinces were largely denuded of troops. The natural drift of things was for the army to be more and more recruited on the frontiers where it was stationed, the internal parts of the empire being to a great extent severed from military service. The results of this policy were in the long run disastrous. Auxiliary forces were formed by demands on the frontier tribes and non-Roman communities.



Painted specially for this work

CLOSING THE TEMPLE OF JANUS.

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

In 29 B.C. Octavian closed the temple of Janus, in token of profound peace in the Roman world. The worship of this deity was said to have existed as a local cult before the foundation of Rome. The temple, little more than a gateway facing east and west, was open during war and closed during peace. It was shut only four times before the Christian era.

One great problem, that of providing an orderly method of succession to the throne, was not completely solved, either by Augustus or by the emperors who followed him. The principles of heredity prevalent in the monarchies which arose on the ruins of the Roman Empire were never firmly established at Rome. The most common practice was that an emperor should during his lifetime mark out his successor. Naturally consanguinity was much regarded. But dynasties never lasted for many generations. Like Caesar, Augustus had no son. His first designated heir was Marcellus, the son of his sister Octavia by her first husband. He died early, a youth of much promise, and his memory has been kept sweet by the beautiful tribute to him which is enshrined in Virgil's "Aeneid." For a time Augustus seems to have contemplated the succession of his lifelong friend and devoted servant Agrippa, who died in 12 B.C. He had been wedded to Julia, the only child of Augustus. Three sons and two daughters were born to Julia and Agrippa, and two of the princes, Gaius and Lucius, were recognized as heirs to the empire. They again were lost in early life. Augustus had forced his stepson Tiberius into an



Photos by]

THE FASTENING OF DIRCE TO THE BULL.

The sons of Antiope, first wife of Lycus, avenged her persecution by Dirce, his second wife, by tying Dirce to the horns of a bull, that she might so meet her death.



[Mansell & Co.

THE LAOCOON.

Laocoon, a priest of Apollo, was punished for profaning the temple. With his sons he was attacked by snakes whilst preparing to offer sacrifice at the altar of Poseidon.

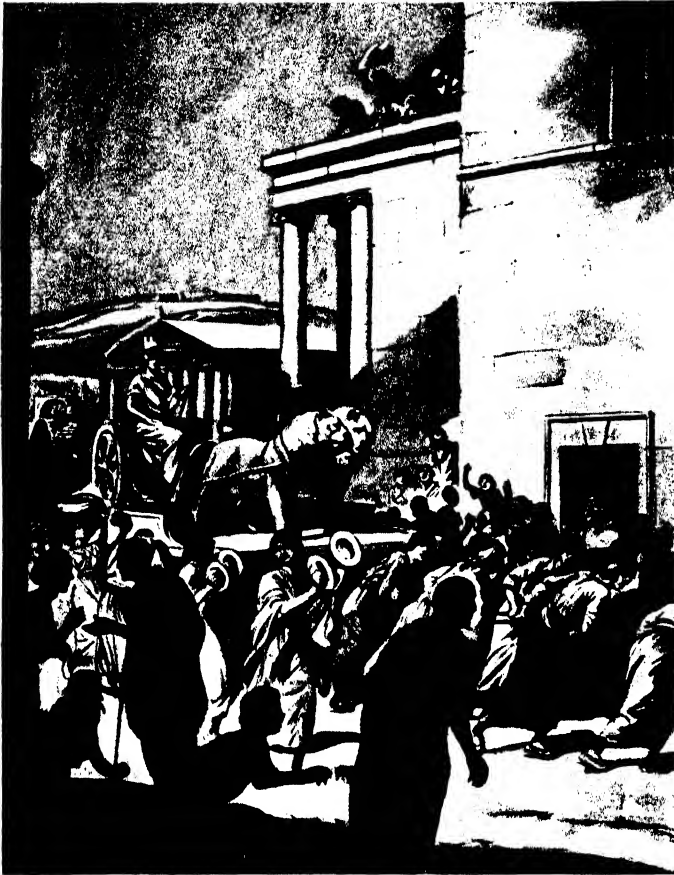


Photo by]

EXAMPLES OF ROMAN SCULPTURE IN THE MANNER OF THE GREEKS.

[Mansell & Co.

This is a symbolical group. A robust-looking man symbolizes the River Nile. The children of the nations are seen clustering about him. Grapes, symbolical of fullness and plenty, are close beside him, and the Sphinx also appears.



Painted specially for this work]

[By George Soper.

THE WORSHIP OF CYBELE.

The Cult of Cybele, Great Mother of the Gods, seems to have originated in Phrygia; her symbol, a small meteoric stone, was brought to Rome in 204 B.C. in obedience to a Sibylline prophecy. In the days of the Empire a silver statue of the goddess was borne in procession at the annual festival, which lasted several days. The gorgeous rites and the frenzied dancing and self-laceration of the priests attracted great masses to the striking doctrines of the religion.

before the Romans the old ideal of character, which was breaking down even in the time of Cato the Censor, under the strain of expansion and of Hellenism. He boasts that he restored all the temples in Rome. He prompted legislation intended to mitigate laxities in the law of marriage, to discourage celibacy and to encourage the rearing of children. The celebrated "*Leges Papiæ Poppææ*" imposed disabilities on celibates. In particular, their rights of taking property by will were diminished. The famous "*right of three children*" (*ius trium liberorum*) gave preferences to those who could show three children living.

"The age of Augustus" owes its celebrity largely to its literature. All literary efforts in Latin of earlier date than the late Republic came to be looked upon as archaic and uncouth. The oldest endeavours to form a Latin literature belonged to the time between the First and Second Punic Wars. It began with very unfinished renderings of Homer and the Greek dramatists, by Livius Andronicus, himself a Greek. Hardly one of the earliest writers was a Roman by birth. Naevius, who followed Livius, was less rude. He produced both tragedies and comedies, versions, like nearly all Latin dramas, of Greek originals, and also wrote a history in verse of the First Punic War. Plautus, who lived during and just after the Hannibalic War, mingled with his comedies more of the "*Italian vinegar*," as it was called. Terence, contemporary of the younger Africanus, was more finished, but a closer imitator of the models he chose from later Greek comedy. A number of other dramatists still preserved some reputation in the age of Cicero. Especially famed was Ennius, whose epic of the Hannibalic

unhappy marriage with Julia, whose conduct, as well as that of her daughter of the same name, was notoriously bad and brought heavy grief to the emperor in his old age. The remaining grandson, Agrippa, was of a dull and coarse nature, and was not regarded as a possible successor. So upon the stepson Tiberius were conferred the two forms of privilege, the proconsular imperium and the tribunician authority, which were the badges of empire. When the emperor died, Tiberius, who had been adopted as his son by Augustus, was a ready-made emperor, with the right of accession. The great power behind the throne all through the imperial age was the army, without whose support the succession would be endangered. The young prince Agrippa was put out of the way, the first of a long series of princes who suffered from the rivalry of their own kin. The favour of the Praetorian Guards, who were at the doors of the palace, was important, but the decisive influence was with the legions on the frontier. From them proceeded nearly all the revolutions which brought about changes of rulers. The great prestige of Caesar and Augustus did not suffice to carry their line beyond Nero, who was put to death in 68.

Augustus prided himself on being a social and religious reformer. He placed

War was the fountain-head for all epic poetry at Rome. The beginnings of native drama existed in several parts of Italy, and attempts were made, with no great success, to give these a literary development. But satire, developed by Lucilius at the end of the second century B.C., became a specially Roman form of composition. Oratory, under Greek tuition, was conspicuous as a force at Rome first in the hands of the Gracchi; and reached its culminating point with Cicero, the only Roman orator whose works, excepting in fragments, have come down to us. Cicero introduced the writings of the Greek philosophers to his countrymen. Although great interest in Greek philosophy had existed at Rome since the time of the celebrated visit of Carneades and two other leaders of schools in 155 B.C., there had been hardly any Latin works on the subject. The most noted was the noble exposition of the Epicurean system by Lucretius, who died when Virgil was a child. History was not written in literary form before the time of Sallust at the end of the Republican period. The earliest Roman chroniclers had written in Greek; they were followed by annalists with a bare and cramped Latin style. The consummate historian of the age before Augustus was Caesar, whose narratives of his own wars we are fortunate to possess.

Augustus realized how powerfully literature might aid in giving support to the new régime. His great minister Maecenas made himself a name for all time as patron of literary men. The ideas which Augustus most sought to impress upon his time are visible all through the poetry of his reign. The need of peace to wash out the stain of civil bloodshed, the necessity of a moral and religious regeneration, the confident expectation of a golden time are to be found in all the poets, even in Horace, who



From the painting by A. Leloir.

HORACE AT TIBUR.

[Copyright Braun & Co.]

The poet Horace was born at Venusia, in Apulia, in 65 B.C. Coming to the notice of Maecenas in 38 B.C. he soon became intimate with him, and in 32 B.C. Maecenas bestowed upon his friend a Sabine farm. Horace also hired or purchased a small cottage near Tibur (Tivoli), and all the later years of his life were passed between the metropolis and these two country residences.



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

AGRIPPINA.

Agrippina the elder was the daughter of Agrippa, granddaughter of Augustus, and wife of Germanicus. She was exiled by Tiberius, who feared she might attempt to secure the throne for her children, the most important of whom were Caligula and the notorious Agrippina the younger, the mother of Nero.

whither his great-uncle had preceded him. His ashes were placed in the fine tomb which he had prepared for himself and his family, the Mausoleum, of which considerable remnants continue to this day. The transition to the new reign was made without difficulty. Livia, the mother of Tiberius, was a woman of strong character, and exercised a great influence over her son during the earlier part of the reign. Tiberius was fifty-six years of age on his succession. His career had been distinguished. Great functions had been allotted to him and he had discharged them with much credit. Unlike his predecessor he had the heart of a soldier. His character was upright, but he was possessed of no popular arts. He was a man made to be misunderstood. What Horace said of himself in jest: "I loathe the profane crowd and hold them aloof," might have been said by Tiberius in all earnest. Augustus had been at pains to live in sight of the people in a fashion that was ostentatiously bourgeois. The unpopularity of Tiberius in the city is reflected in the unjust measure which has been dealt out to him by most of the ancient historians. Yet evidence remains which abundantly proves that he was one of the best rulers the empire ever had.

Drusus, the brother of Tiberius, had died in Germany, and on him was bestowed, after his death, in honour of his victories, the title Germanicus. It descended to his son, who married Agrippina, a daughter of Agrippa, and grand-daughter of Augustus. The old emperor seems to have desired that their children should be in the line of

fought against Augustus at Philippi. By Virgil, Augustus is glorified as rising above the human level. In writers like Ovid and Propertius the flattery is ruder and more fulsome. Even Livy, the greatest prose writer of the time, whose principles were so Republican that Augustus described him as "Pompeian," was to some extent under the spell of Augustus. Time has unfortunately left to us little or nothing but early sections of Livy's great work. For the history after 168 B.C. we have only fragments.

In A.D. 14 Augustus died, full of years and fame. The funeral ceremonial was grandiose, and Augustus passed into the ranks of divine beings,

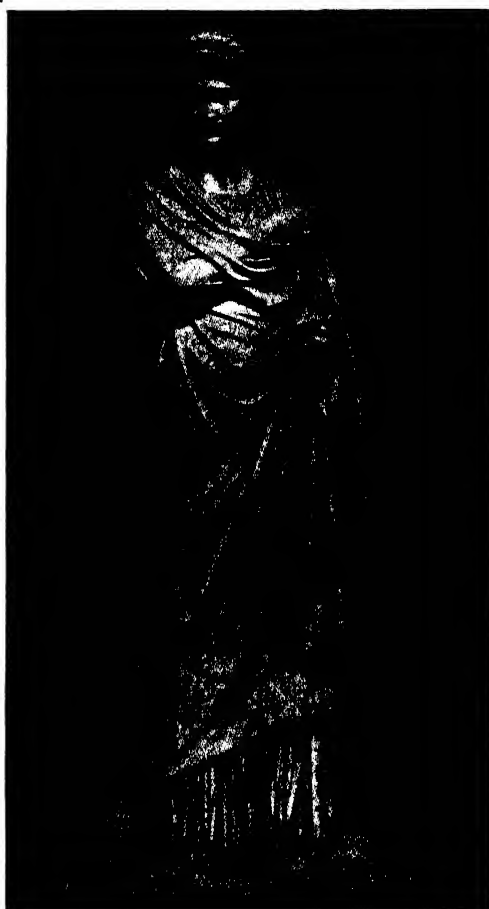


Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

ANTONIA.

The younger Antonia was the daughter of Marcus Antonius, the triumvir, and the niece of Augustus. She married Nero Claudius Drusus, the younger brother of the Emperor Tiberius, and had two sons, Germanicus and Claudius, afterwards emperor, and one daughter, Livilla.



From the painting by Piloty.

THUSNELDA AT THE TRIUMPH OF GERMANICUS.

After many victorious campaigns against the German tribes to avenge the loss of Varus and his legions, Germanicus was recalled by Tiberius Caesar. In his triumph, ensigns, weapons and pictures of German scenery figured greatly. The many prisoners of high and low birth marched in fetters, amongst them Thusnelda, wife of Arminius, the enemy's leader, with her little son and her brother Sigismund. Her father, Segestes, who had remained friendly to Rome, may be seen standing in a place of honour to the left of the emperor, and looking down upon the festival of the Romans and the misery of his children.

[By permission of Franz Hanfstaengl.]

succession, and compelled Tiberius to adopt Germanicus as his son. Drusus, the son of Tiberius, was somewhat younger. The two young men were close friends, and Tiberius treated them with strict justice. But each had his partisans, who were at bitter enmity. Strife was largely promoted by the women of the imperial house. The palace was, and remained for all the imperial period, a home of intrigue. Agrippina, a haughty, imperious lady, and Livia, who had the art of mastery in a subtler form, were sworn foes. Drusus was a rough character and a fainéant, who cared little for popular



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

SEJANUS SAVES TIBERIUS.

In 26 A.D. Tiberius left Rome and went into retirement, never again returning to the capital. Staying at a villa near Fundi, named the Caverns, he was one day dining in one of the natural caves which gave the house its name. A great quantity of stones fell from the roof and killed some attendants, but Tiberius' favourite, Sejanus, protected his emperor with his own body, and was found still covering him when soldiers came to their relief.

was driven out of Asia, but hearing not far away of the death of Germanicus, returned. Wild rumours of foul play flew about and Tiberius was vilely traduced. The sympathy with Agrippina and her young family was profound in the capital, and in the heated state of feeling there could not but be condemnation of the emperor, reason or no reason. Neither the great honours paid to Germanicus after his death nor the punishment of Piso and his wife served to allay ill-feeling. Agrippina and her adherents were able to do much to poison the life of Tiberius.

The foreign policy of the emperor was wise, and his reign was comparatively little troubled by armed opposition. There was unrest in Africa and on the Danube, where the Roman rule was not yet firmly

affairs, though he had the bonhomie which his father lacked. Germanicus entered into popularity without effort, and as though it were his natural right. He had a great command in Gaul and on the Rhine frontier at the time when Augustus died. The new reign opened with an extensive mutiny in the legions serving on the Rhine and Danube. With great difficulty, Germanicus mastered a very perilous situation. The movement on the Rhine was more easily suppressed by Drusus.

It was the ambition of Germanicus to resume the scheme of Augustus for the conquest of Germany, and Tiberius allowed him for a time a free hand. Any successes that were won by this favourite of the nation were greatly magnified. But the result of three campaigns went to justify the decision of Augustus, and Germanicus was recalled to enjoy a triumph. The quarrels of the two great barbarian chiefs, Arminius and Maroboduus, had saved Rome, and their deaths near this time removed a peril. Germanicus was dispatched to the East with an important commission to rearrange the affairs of the empire there, and to avert danger threatened from the side of the Parthians. A bitter quarrel arose between Germanicus and Piso, the governor of Syria, an arrogant member of the Roman nobility. The enmity was fomented by their two wives, and matters were not far from civil war. Piso

DATES OF ROMAN HISTORY

(59 B.C. to 410 A.D.)

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
First consulship of Caesar to war with Pompeians.	B.C.	
	59	Lex agraria. Caesar obtains the government of Illyricum, and of Cisalpine and Trans-Alpine Gaul for five years.
	58	M. Cato annexes Cyprus. Helvetian invasion of Gaul crushed by Caesar.
	56	Conference at Luca.
	55	Caesar's first expedition to Britain.
	54	Temple at Jerusalem pillaged by Crassus. Caesar's second expedition to Britain.
	53	Defeat and death of Crassus in the Parthian War.
	52	Clodius killed by Milo on Appian Way. Defeat of Vercingetorix. Capture of Alesia.
	51	Conquest of Gaul completed.
Crossing the Rubicon to the Triumvirate.	49	Caesar crosses Rubicon, but Pompeius escapes to Greece. Caesar overcomes followers of Pompeius in Spain, afterwards capturing Massilia.
	48	Victory of Pharsalia in Thessaly. Pompeius assassinated in Egypt.
	46	Death of M. Cato. Fifteen months in the year owing to change in calendar made by Caesar. Pompeians defeated at Thapsus, in Africa.
	45	Pompeians finally defeated at Munda. Return of Caesar to Rome.
	44	Assassination of Caesar. Mark Antony's speech against conspirators; he becomes leader at Rome.
	43	Decimus Brutus killed. Triumvirate of Antonius, Lepidus and Octavian. Proscription.
Philippi to Death of Antonius.	42	Deaths of Brutus and Cassius. Gallia Cisalpina incorporated with Italy.
	41	Antonius leaves for Alexandria with Cleopatra.
	40	Roman world divided between Octavian and Antonius. Marriage of Octavia with Antonius.
	39	Octavian, Pompeius, and Antonius arrange the "Treaty of Misenum."
	38	Pompey in despite of the Treaty makes war on the Triumvirs.
	37	Jerusalem captured. Herod installed as King.
	36	Pompeius crushed by Agrippa in Sicily. Expedition of Antonius against Parthians fails.
	35	Sext. Pompeius killed in Asia.
	33	Antonius refuses to meet Octavia to arrange matters between her brother and himself.
	32	Antonius divorces Octavia. War is proclaimed against him, following an attack in the Senate by Octavian.
	31	Battle of Actium. (Sept. 2).
Actium to the Empire.	30	Suicide of Antonius and Cleopatra. Egypt becomes a Roman Province.
	29	Great public triumphs, for victories at Actium, in Egypt, and in Dalmatia. "Templum divi Juli" dedicated. Balkans crossed by the Romans for the first time.
	27	Name "Augustus" given to Octavian. Provinces divided between him and Senate. He visits Gaul and organizes Provinces of Belgica, Aquitania, Gallia Lugudensis.
First ten years of Augustus.	26	Cn. Cornelius Gallus, charged with treason, commits suicide.
	25	Aelius Gallus penetrates Arabia. Pantheon completed by Agrippa.
	23	Augustus resigns consulship owing to ill-health. "Potestas tribunicia" bestowed on him.
	22	Augustus accepts a "cura annonae" in view of famine and pestilence.
	21	Augustus declines consulship.
	20	War against Phraates, King of Parthia.
	19	Final subjection of the Cantabri. All Spain subject to Rome.
	18	"Potestas tribunicia" to Agrippa for five years.
Second ten years of Augustus.	17	"Ludi saeculares."
	16	Augustus and Tiberius in Gaul.
	15	Augustus asserts control over coinage of gold and silver.
	14	Foundation of colonies, especially in Gaul and Spain. Confirmation of privileges to the Jews in Asia.
	13	Renewal of "tribunicia potestas" to Agrippa.
	12	Augustus elected as "Pontifex Maximus." Death of Agrippa.
	11	Death of Octavia. Outbreak in Thrace and Macedonia.
	10	Augustus in Gaul. "Ara Romae et Augusti" at Lugudunum.
	9	Death of Drusus on his return from expedition to the Elbe.
	8	Tiberius at the German Frontier.
Third ten years of Augustus.	7-4	New campaign in Germany. Tiberius retires to Rhodes. Death of Herod.
	2	Title of "pater patriae" bestowed on Augustus.
	A.D.	
	1-3	Gaius consul, he meets the Parthian King, and is subsequently wounded in Armenia.
Fourth ten years of Augustus.	4-5	Death of Gaius. Roman army at the Elbe
	6-10	Famine at Rome. Victories in Dalmatia and Pannonia. Varus defeated by Arminius, leader of the Cherusci, in the Teutoburg forest. Defences of the Rhine secured.
	12	Tiberius in command at the Rhine.
Death of Augustus. First nine years of Tiberius.	14	Death of Augustus at Nola.
	16	Germanicus recalled. Attempt to extend frontier to the Elbe abandoned.
	17	Germanicus goes to the East. Deaths of Ovid and Livy.
	19-20	Death of Germanicus in Syria, Piso commits suicide on being charged with procuring his death.
	23	Temple to Tiberius, Livia, and Senate in Smyrna.
Last years of Tiberius.	26-7	Pontius Pilate appointed procurator of Judaea. Tiberius leaves Rome, Sejanus takes over the business of state.
	28-9	Marriage of younger Agrippina. Elder Agrippina exiled with her son Nero.
	33	Financial crisis. Execution of Drusus, son of Germanicus.
	36-7	Pontius Pilate recalled to Rome. Tiberius dies at Misenum. Gaius (Caligula) Emperor.
Reign of Gaius (Caligula).	37	Tiberius—grandson of Emperor Tiberius—forced to suicide.
	38	Disturbances at Alexandria among Jews and Gentiles on attempts of the latter to put statues of Gaius in synagogues.
	39-40	Herod Antipas exiled. Gaius orders his own effigy to be set up in the temple at Jerusalem. Order withdrawn through action of Herod Agrippa.
Reign of Claudius.	41	Murder of Gaius, the result of his taxation and extortion. Herod Agrippa's dominions extended.
	42-3	Romans cross the Atlas range. Claudius conquers Britain. The title "Britannicus" conferred upon the Emperor's young son.
	44	Death of Herod Agrippa. Judaea again a province.
	47	Vespasian, the future Emperor, distinguishes himself in Britain.
	48	Aedui granted the right to become senators by Claudius.
	50	Roman colony founded at Camalodunum (Colchester). Caractacus, King of the Silures, is betrayed, and taken a prisoner from Britain to Rome.
	52	Felix made procurator of Judaea.
	53	Octavia married to Nero.
	54	Claudius poisoned; subsequent deification.

DATES OF ROMAN HISTORY—*continued*

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Nero's reign.	A.D. 55 56-8 59-60 61-62	Britannicus poisoned. Seneca made Consul. Operations against Parthia. Agrippina murdered. Felix succeeded by Pestus. Rising of Iceni headed by Boadicea. Londinium and Verulamium captured by rebels. Murder of Octavia, Poppaea marries Nero. Great fire in Rome. Persecution of Christians. Jews rise in revolt against Roman rule. Vespasian victorious over the Jews.
Nero's fall to end of Vespasian's reign.	68-9 70-1 72 74 75-8	Nero driven to death. Proclamation of Vespasian at Alexandria as Emperor. Jerusalem taken by Titus, who is made Prefect of the Praetorians. Vespasian and Titus censors. "Latinitas" conferred on Spanish districts not possessed of full citizenship. Philosophers expelled. Temple of Pax. Syria invaded by Parthians. Titus again censor.
Titus and Domitian.	79 80-1 84 85-6 92	Death of Vespasian. Pompeii and Herculaneum destroyed. "Coliseum" and "Thermae" opened. Titus dies. Domitian succeeds. Agricola reaches Forth and Clyde. Agricola's fleet sails round Britain. Agricola recalled. Tacitus made praetor. Campaign against Suevoi and Sarmatae.
Nerva and Trajan.	96 98-101 106-7 113-15 116	Domitian murdered. Nerva elected. "Lex agraria." Trajan succeeds Nerva. Victory over Decebalus. Annexation of Dacia. Trajan's Triumph. Campaigns against Parthians begun by Trajan. Trajan's Forum and Column completed. Mesopotamia [conquered]. Ctesiphon and Seleucia captured. Jewish revolts.
Reign of Hadrian.	117 121 122 131-6 138	Trajan's death. His adopted son Hadrian succeeds him. "Aelia Capitolina" founded at Jerusalem. M. Aurelius born. Vallum and wall built between Solway and Tyne. Hadrian's Wall between Solway and Tyne. Second Jewish Rising under Simon Bar Kosiba. Empress Sabina dies. Hadrian's death. His adopted son, T. Aurelius Antoninus, succeeds.
Antoninus Pius to L. Verus.	139-40 143 145 161 165-9 170-5	Hadrian deified. Senate dissenting. Brigantes defeated. Defensive works constructed between the Clyde and Forth. M. Aurelius married to Faustina, the younger. Death of Antoninus. M. Aurelius and L. Verus joint-Emperors. [L. Verus dies. Peace with Parthians. Revolt of Marcomanni. Barbarians invade Noricum, Dacia, and Pannonia. Mauri harass Spain. Faustina dies. 176. Emperor visits Antioch, Athens, and Alexandria.
Commodus to death of Septimius Verus.	180-2 183 189-93 196-7 202 210-11	M. Aurelius dies of plague. Commodus succeeds. Dacian revolt. Lucilla and Empress Crispina executed for conspiracy. [Emperor. Famine in Rome. Commodus murdered. Pertinax Emperor, but is murdered by Praetorians. Severus Severus defeats Albinus, who had been declared Emperor, at Lugdunum. Severus at Rome; he goes to Britain to check northern invasions in 208. Revolt of Caledonii and Macatae. Death of Severus at York.
Caracalla to end of Severus Alexander.	212 213 215 217 222-31 233	Roman citizenship given to the whole Empire by Caracalla's ordinance. First Roman campaign against the Alemanni. Caracalla orders massacre at Alexandria. "Thermae" completed. Murder of Caracalla, Macrinus made Emperor. Succession of S. Alexander. Persian army in Cappadocia. Failure of Alexander's Persian expedition. Alexander's so-called victories celebrated at Rome.
S. Alexander's death to Valerian's capture.	235 238 241 244 248 250 255 259-60	Alexander killed by soldiers at Moguntiacum. [Danube. The Pro-consul of Africa, M. Antonius Gordianus, declared Emperor. For the first time Goths cross the Persian King Sapor advances against Roman dominions. Gordianus dies. Succession of Philippus "the Arabian." Decius is declared Emperor, he kills Philippus near Verona in 249. Decius persecutes Christians. Goths penetrate Roman dominions as far as Thrace. Illyricum and Macedonia invaded by Goths. 257. Valerian's edict against Christians. Alemanni in Italy, defeated at Milan by Gallienus. Valerian captured by Sapor, King of Persia.
To Diocletian's accession.	262 267 271 273 275-7 280-2	Ephesus plundered by Scythians. Goths attack Illyricum. Thessalonica besieged. Invasion of Italy by Barbarians. They are defeated by Aurelian, who builds a new wall round Rome. Aurelian crushes the revolt of Palmyra under Zenobia. Aurelian killed in Thrace. Probus defeats the Germans, of whom 16,000 join him. Frankish piracy. Probus killed by soldiers, and Carus put on the throne.
Diocletian.	282 287-90 293 296 297-301	Persians cede Armenia and Mesopotamia. 284. Diocletian and Maximian Emperors. Franks crushed by Maximian. Carausius made lord of Britain. Carausius killed by Allectus, who usurps his place. Galerius defeats the Persians. Great campaign against Persia. Diocletian fixes price of commodities by edict.
Constantine's struggles and final success.	305 306 308 312-3 322	Abdication of Diocletian and Maximian. Maxentius recognized as Augustus. Return and subsequent flight of Maximian. Maximian styles himself Augustus at Arles; pardoned but afterwards forced to suicide. Constantine converted. Decree of religious freedom at Milan. Constantine defeats Sarmatae and Goths.
Constantine's supremacy to Julian's death.	325 330 332 334 337 340 343 359-63	Constantine presides at Council of Nicaea. Arius condemned by followers of Athanasius. Name of Byzantium changed to Constantinopolis. Capital of Roman Empire changed from Rome to [Constantinople]. 40,000 Goths enter Roman service as "foederati." The Sarmatae settle within the Roman Empire to the number of 300,000. Constantine baptized. He dies May 22. Imperial family massacred, including Dalmatius. Constantine II. killed by Constans, who annexes his dominions. The building of the Church of Sancta Sophia at Constantinople. Persian war. Emperor Julian at Constantinople, where Pagan worship is reintroduced. Julian fatally wounded in Persian war.
Jovian's murder to Theodosius' death.	364-9 381 391-2	Jovian killed. Procopius made Emperor at Constantinople. Rivalry of Damascus and Ursinus for the Goths enrolled in Danube legions by Theodosius. [Papacy. Decree against Paganism. Goths, Huns, and Alans defeated by Stilicho.
Theodosius' death to Attila's death.	394-5 396-403 404 408 410	Honorius becomes Emperor of the West; Arcadius of the East. Death of Theodosius. Goths under Alaric invade Greece and Italy, but are defeated by Stilicho. Removal of Court of Honorius to Ravenna. Stilicho's death. Alaric imposes ransom on Rome. Alaric sets up puppet Emperor Attalus in 409. Alaric degrades Attalus. Goths sack Rome.

established; and in Gaul and Judaea owing to the oppression of the tax-gatherer. Tiberius exercised a wise supervision over provincial government. When he discovered an exceptionally good administrator, he would keep him in office for an abnormally long period, a practice which did not ingratiate him with the nobility. It was his maxim that a good shepherd ought to shear the sheep and not to bleed them in the shearing. Oppression of the provincials met with severe punishment. The method of direct collection of taxes, replacing the tax-farmers by public officials who could be more easily controlled, was carried considerably farther than in the preceding reign. The provinces, as a whole, were prosperous and the administration of the national finance was careful and sound.

But at Rome the emperor became more and more unpopular. His history has been transmitted to us in the main from hostile sources, and in ancient times these were unscrupulous to an extent hard



Painted specially for this work]

[By A. C. Weatherstone.

THE ORIGIN OF CALIGULA'S NAME

The Emperor Gaius, known as Caligula (little-boots), spent some time when an infant in the Roman camp on the Rhine. His mother used to dress him as a legionary to please the soldiers. They were very fond of the child and gave him the name Caligula from the little military boots (caligae) which he wore.

for us to conceive. Many of the allegations of Tacitus and others can be refuted out of the writers themselves. The causes of animosity were numerous. There was his grim unsocial nature, which grew harder as the years passed. His repression of misgovernment was itself an offence to the nobles. The Senate itself now became a high court of justice, and was forced to try offenders of its own order, with no freedom to acquit the guilty. The discipline of the purely imperial side of the administration was of course in the emperor's own hands, excepting when he chose to direct an arraignment to come before the Senate.

At the outset of his reign Tiberius, probably acting on an injunction from Augustus, abolished election by the assemblies of the citizens, and made the Senate the elective body. The right to legislate was also attached to the Senate. In 23 an important step was taken, fraught with consequences. The Praetorian Guards, who had been quartered in scattered cantonments round about the city, were now

concentrated in a camp just outside the walls. They were under the control of a single commander, the notorious Sejanus, the evil genius of Tiberius—the villain of Ben Jonson's well-known play. Sejanus won the confidence of his gloomy master, weary of the burden of empire, and was raised by him to such a height that contemporaries spoke of a partnership in the imperial authority. A natural result was enmity between Sejanus and the emperor's son Drusus, on whom had been bestowed the "tribunician authority." The wife of Drusus, Livilla, who was a sister of Germanicus, a beautiful and ambitious woman, entered upon an intrigue with Sejanus. Drusus died in 23, and his death at the time seemed to be accounted for by his loose life. Later, it was attributed to his wife and her paramour. Drusus left a young son, but Tiberius hastened to present to the Senate the two oldest sons of Germanicus and Agrippina, Nero Caesar and Drusus Caesar, as successors to the throne. Agrippina was not propitiated, and the miserable factions of the palace caused Tiberius to leave Rome in 26. He never returned to the capital. Sejanus worked unceasingly for the ruin of Agrippina and her sons. In 29 the stroke fell upon them. They were denounced to the Senate as disloyal; the mother and one son were exiled; the other son was imprisoned. Sejanus rose higher and higher, and it seemed as if he were the destined successor of Tiberius. But he was hasty and tried to snatch the fruit for himself ere it was ripe. At a meeting of the Senate in 31 there came from the emperor's retreat at Capri what the satirist Juvenal called "a long and verbose letter," which gave over Sejanus and all his kin to destruction. Two years later the death of Agrippina and her son Drusus followed. Nero was already dead. The one remaining son of Germanicus, whom we commonly call Caligula, was now declared heir.



Painted specially for this work]

[By M. Dovaston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

CARACTACUS BEFORE CLAUDIUS.

In 50 A.D. Caractacus, a British chief who had for some time been defying the Roman arms, was defeated and sent as a prisoner to Rome. His fame had spread over Gaul and Italy, and upon his arrival at the capital the people flocked from all quarters to see him. Led before Claudius, the Briton's dauntless behaviour filled the emperor with such admiration that he granted him and his family instant liberty.



By permission of Louis Wolff & Co., Ltd., London, W.]

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the large Engraving.

NERO'S WATER FESTIVAL.

It has been said of the Emperor Nero that he used the whole of Rome as if it had been his private house. His pleasures and his debauchery were practised publicly. On one occasion a feast was laid out on a large raft, which was towed along by ships in the basin of Agrippa. On the banks of the basin stood houses filled with women of ignoble birth who, scantily clad, attended the feast.

From the year 26, when Tiberius left Rome, till his death in 37, he was seen by few Romans. He lived fenced off from the world in his island retreat at Capreac (Capri). The mystery that surrounded him was held to be a cloak for infamy. A man who had lived to the age of sixty-seven an austere life was believed to have plunged then into debauchery illimitable and unspeakable. Madness alone could account for such a transformation. Yet we have many proofs that to the moment of his death his control of affairs was keen and unrelaxed, though his remaining years were darkened by executions of his kinsmen and eminent senators. To those who know the boundless licence taken by writers (a mighty host) who vilified deceased emperors, it would not be surprising if all the dark tales told of the private life of Tiberius at Capri were destitute of foundation. On the whole, Tiberius was a wise and conscientious governor, whose rule conferred inestimable benefits upon the empire.

Caligula had been declared successor by the Senate at the instance of Tiberius. The emperor's testament, however, gave equal rights in the inheritance of property to the young grandson, Tiberius Gemellus, and to Caligula. The new emperor was twenty-six years of age, and the enthusiasm of the people for the son of Germanicus brightened the political world for the moment. Caligula was a grandson of Mark Antony and Octavia, the sister of Augustus. On pressure from the Senate, he adopted Tiberius Gemellus as his son, and so recognized him as heir apparent. But the young prince was done to death not long after. The emperor's official name was Gaius Caesar, Caligula being a nickname given to him by the soldiers, when his mother had him with her as an infant in the camp on the Rhine, and dressed him in imitation of the soldiers' garb, including the military boot (*caliga*). As soon as Caligula reached Rome, he amused himself by discrediting the memory of Tiberius in many ways and by pretending to restore Republican institutions and practices. But he soon verified a prophecy attributed to Tiberius, that he would prove a Sulla, without any of Sulla's redeeming characteristics. The wildest extravagance dissipated the resources with which the prudence of his predecessor had equipped the treasury. New and oppressive taxation was inflicted. Among the many insane projects on which money was lavished was a great bridge of ships across a wide inlet of the Bay of Naples. A reign of terror set in, and confiscations and executions were rife. The emperor's pretensions to divinity were the maddest ever known till Elagabalus came to the throne nearly two centuries later. They

brought him into hostility with the Jews, because he had ordered his own statue, with the emblems of Jupiter, to be placed in all temples, including that of Jehovah at Jerusalem, and also in the synagogues.

In the field of foreign affairs Caligula had something like a policy. Tiberius had seized opportunities to annex some of the pro-

vinces from Mark Antony, one through Octavia, the sister of Augustus, and the other through the Egyptian queen Cleopatra.

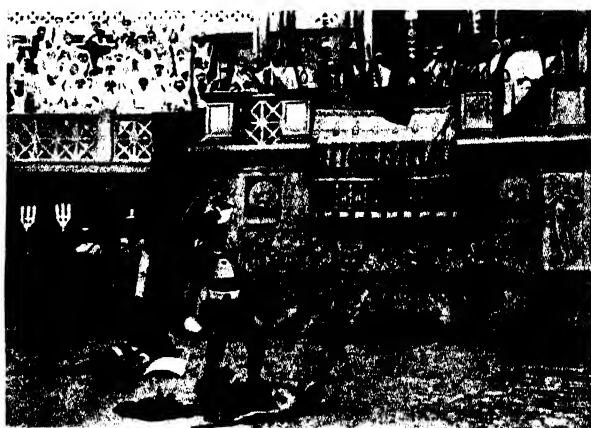
By the beginning of the year 41 the cup of Caligula's iniquity was full. The poor in the city were on the verge of famine, because the money needed to purchase corn had been profligately squandered. The wealthier class groaned under the tyranny of a lunatic. Recourse was had to assassination, the chief conspirators being officers of the Praetorian Guards. For the first time these soldiers gave an emperor to the nation; but now, as ever, their choice would have been in vain had they not carried with them the sympathies of the legions on the frontiers of the empire. Some feeble attempts were made to secure free selection to the Senate, and it was known that great nobles were aspirants for the vacancy. But the prestige of the Julio-Claudian line was as yet too great to be broken through. The new ruler, Claudius, was the uncle of Caligula, being the son of the elder Germanicus, the brother of Tiberius. His personality is enigmatic to a high degree. Certain it is that ridicule pursued him all the days of his life and after his death. Although he was not ill-made, sickness in childhood had induced physical defects, which were mercilessly regarded by a people in whose rhetorical schools bodily imperfection was regularly treated as a fit theme for public humour. His intellect and character presented similar problems. He was highly educated and full of historical and antiquarian lore, which he



THE GREAT FIRE, 64 A.D.

On July 18th of this year a conflagration broke out in Rome of immense magnitude. It raged for more than six days, destroying, it is said, more than half the city. The cause of the outbreak is not definitely known.

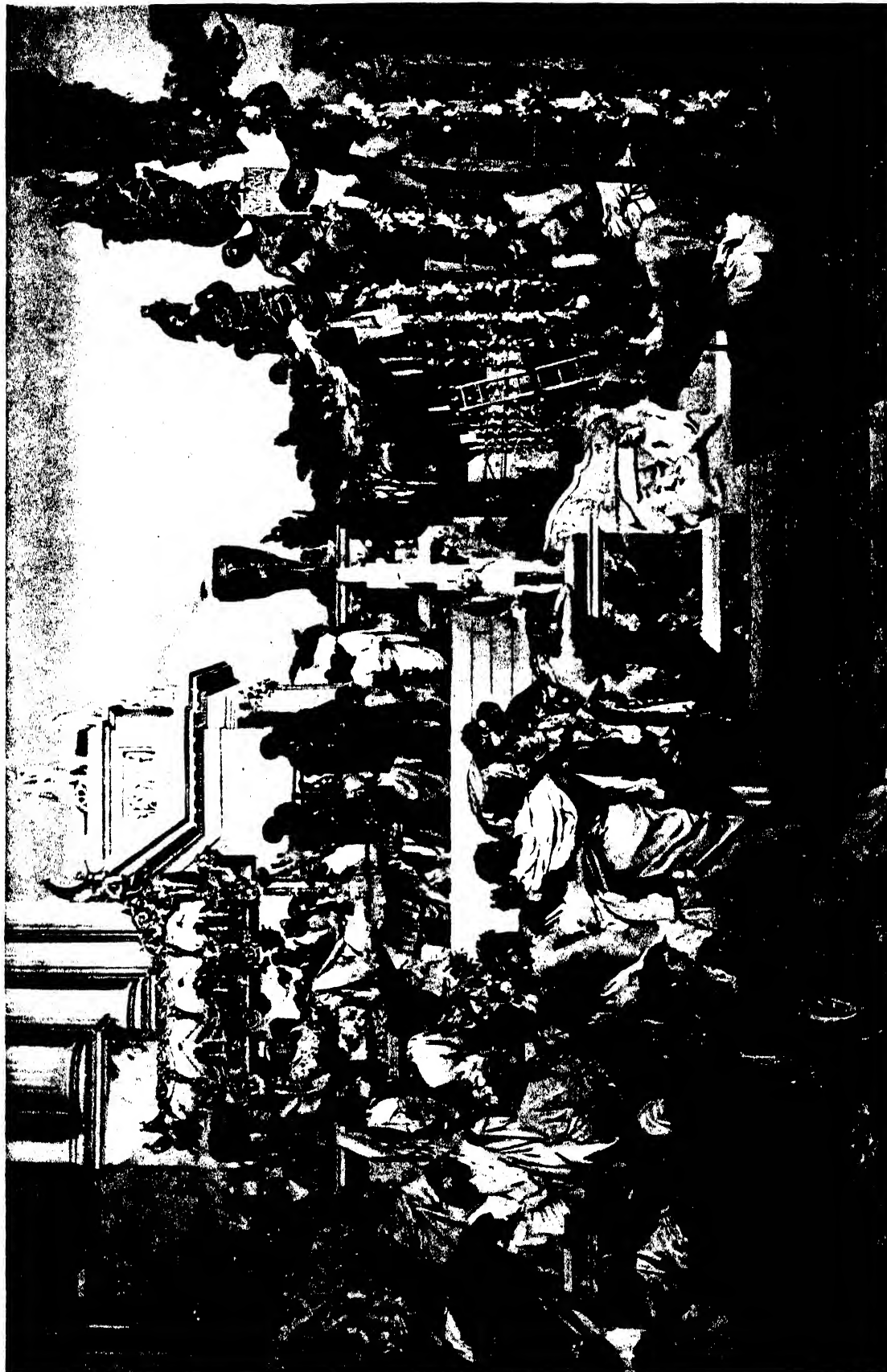
tected monarchies on the frontiers of the empire. Several of his measures were reversed by his successor. Thus Thrace and Judaea were once more placed under native princes. But, on the other hand, Mauretania was incorporated in the empire. Caligula barbarously murdered the last king, Ptolemy, who was his cousin, both being descended



By permission of the Cines Co. of Rome, through Jury's Imperial Pictures, Ltd.

A GLADIATORIAL COMBAT.

The above pictures represent typical scenes in a Roman amphitheatre. A gladiator called a *retarius*, lightly clad and armed only with a net and trident, endeavours to conquer his heavier-armed opponent by entangling him in the net. In the second picture the victor, standing over his beaten adversary, requires the audience to signal by pointing their thumbs up or down whether he shall spare him or not.



From the painting by Siemradzki.

NERO'S TORCHES.

There is no reason to suppose that the outbreak of the great fire was other than accidental. But a rumour being started that Nero had bribed incendiaries, the emperor managed to throw suspicion upon the Christians. A large number of them were condemned as incendiaries, and were put to death with mockery. Some, wrapped in skins, were thrown to wild dogs; others were set on fire to serve as torches by night, Nero giving up his gardens to the spectacle of these tortures and himself associating in it.

[By permission of The Berlin Photographic Co.]



Photo by]

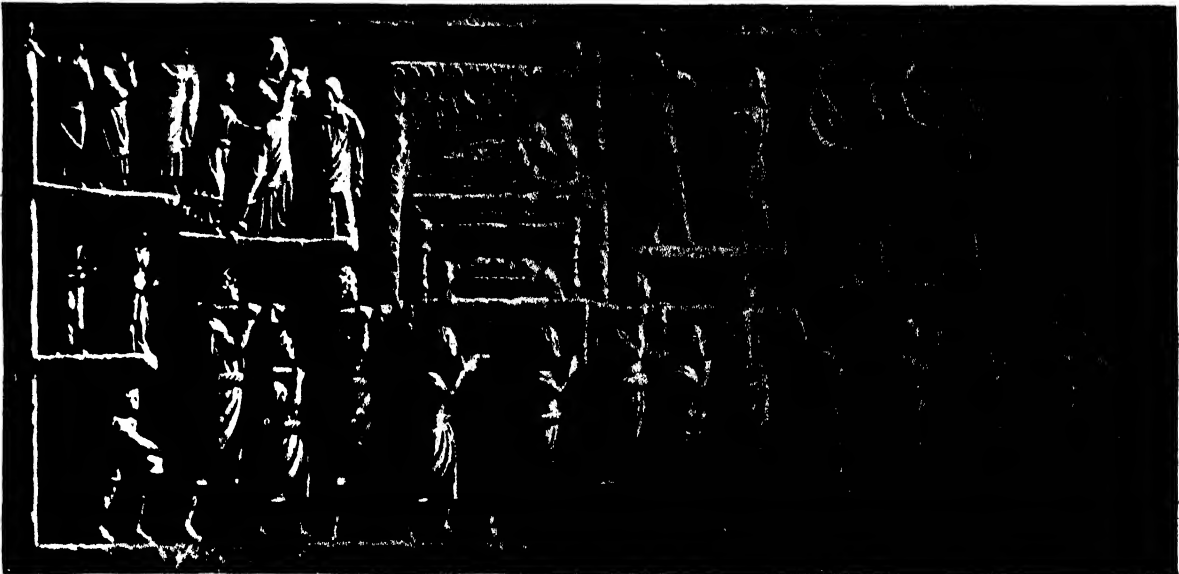
THE ROMAN AMPHITHEATRE AT NÎMES.

[P. J. Home.

The arena seen from one of the openings of the galleries by which the great audiences reached the seats. The building is constructed with large stones fitted together without mortar, and was capable of accommodating nearly 24,000 persons. It was erected in the first or second century A.D., and was used for gladiatorial fights, naval spectacles, wolf or boar hunts and chariot races.

embodied in Greek works, deserving of a respectable place in literature of the kind. But he was sensual, indolent, irresolute, timid and forgetful. These faults had been aggravated by an almost complete isolation from public life, and by a private life overclouded by general contempt, even on the part of his kinsfolk.

After his accession to the throne, at the age of fifty, Claudius was dominated by the influence of women, freedmen and slaves. The imperial palace was saturated with intrigue. Many actual or alleged conspiracies led to much sacrifice of life. These woes, however, affected almost solely the senatorial and equestrian classes in the capital. As a monarch, Claudius possessed good qualities which did not meet the eyes of those who saw him moving about in Rome. Unlike the emperor who preceded him



From the "Cambridge Latin Companion,"]

STONE RELIEF OF A FUNERAL PROCESSION.

[Edited by Sir John Sandys.

This was found at Preturo in 1879, and represents a funeral procession of some provincial magnate. Roman funerals were usually very noisy, there being many instrument players, besides hired mourners who sang dirges. Other features occasionally employed were a mummer, who imitated gestures of the dead, and a body of men wearing portrait-masks of his ancestors.

and Nero who followed him, he had a steady sense of responsibility as director of the empire, and in spite of his defects was able to effect no little good in his dominions as a whole.

The peace of the empire was, in the main, successfully preserved by Claudius. No exhausting military operations took place, though there were occasional disturbances in Germany, on the Danube, in Africa and in the East. The most serious conflicts were caused by the invasion of Britain, on which occasion Claudius himself was present for a few days. The attack was easily successful in 43 A.D., and an important settlement was made at Camalodunum (Colchester) in the year 50, to serve as a centre of government. The penetration of the island proceeded steadily during the reign. Thrace, a dependent kingdom, was again annexed. Judaea also was placed under imperial control, with disastrous con-



From the painting]

[By Edward Armitage, R.A.

THE BURIAL OF A CHRISTIAN MARTYR.

The Christians were hated by the Romans for the enormities that were attributed to them, and great persecutions took place in the reign of Nero, who caused all believers in the faith to be murdered. Some were burnt, others torn to pieces by wild beasts, whilst many were crucified—in fact no torture seemed too terrible for them to pass through before death ensued.

sequences, due in part to a series of corrupt and incompetent procurators. Much was done to push Roman culture on the western side of the empire. Cologne (Colonia Agrippinensis) was founded as a colony and named after the younger Agrippina, who was born there. It was to be a centre of Roman culture for Germany. Full Roman burgess rights were freely given to cities which seemed to be prepared for them. The advance in some portions of the provinces, in Gaul, the Danube regions and Africa, was very marked. For the first time noble Gauls were admitted to the senatorial career. Claudius was one of the greatest of Roman road-makers, and the prosperity of his realms was greatly promoted by his policy in this respect. The development of the Roman law, to which the establishment of the imperial system powerfully contributed, became rapid in the reign of Claudius, and must be connected with the unwearying interest which he took in the subject.



From the painting]

[By Rochegrosse.

THE MURDER OF VITELLIUS, 69 A.D.

The death of the Emperor Vitellius was a fitting end to a reign of tyranny, cruelty and beastliness. Torn from an obscure hiding-place by the revolted legionaries, he was led bound and half-naked through the streets of Rome. His hair was tied backwards, and a sword held beneath his chin to prevent him from hiding his face. Bespattered with mud, beaten, and ridiculed on account of his red face and immense corpulence, he was at last killed with blows, his body being dragged through the streets and thrown into the Tiber.

A marked feature of the reign is the improvement of the organization in the capital for the administration of affairs. Freedmen of the emperor were placed at the head of departments of state, and acquired great powers as ministers. It must be remembered that in the ancient world slaves and men who had passed through slavery were often distinguished for ability and cultivation. They were, however, from a social point of view, inferior in rank, and for this very reason they were convenient servants of an emperor.

The dark features of the reign of Claudius were intimately connected with palace plots, of which some pictures in the pages of Tacitus are among the most brilliant ornaments of historical literature. The empress Messalina exercised a malign influence, fatal to many of those whom for one reason or another she hated. Her abandoned life was at last brought to the knowledge of her unobservant husband, and she was put to death. Already the ambition of the younger Agrippina, daughter of the emperor's



From the painting]

[By Hector le Roux.

THE ERUPTION OF VESUVIUS.

In 79 A.D. Vesuvius, the volcanic forces of which had been slumbering for unknown ages, burst into violent action. The eruption devastated the surrounding country and buried the two cities of Herculaneum and Pompeii under dense beds of cinders and ashes. A detailed description of the disaster is given in the letters of the younger Pliny, whose uncle perished near Pompeii.

brother, had made itself plain. Despite of law, she aimed at marrying her uncle, and the law was changed to enable her to ascend the throne. She gave her whole energy to the project of obtaining the succession for her son, whom we know as the emperor Nero. In the year 50, little more than a year after her marriage, she induced Claudius to adopt Nero as his son, and so to place him on a level with Britannicus, the son of Messalina. Her chief allies were Burrus, the commander of the Praetorian Guards, and Pallas, the head of the emperor's Treasury. On the other hand, Narcissus, the principal Secretary of State, strove to maintain the rights of Britannicus. In 53 Octavia, sister of Britannicus, was married to Nero. After threading a maze of intrigues, Agrippina compassed the death of Claudius, late in the year 54, and Burrus secured the succession for Nero, then not quite seventeen years of age.

The new ruler was made by nature for popularity. His handsome presence accorded with a warm and artistic constitution. He had been trained by the famous Stoic philosopher Seneca, whose numerous treatises and letters have come down to our time, and by Burrus, a man of rugged, old-fashioned character, however much the stress of the times had made him bend to baseness. These two, at first in harmony

with Agrippina, guided the course of affairs, and the early part of the reign was prosperous on the whole, though darkened by more than one crime. Agrippina aspired to nothing less than the control of the empire, and dissensions arose between mother and son, which made the path of Seneca and Burrus a thorny one. Britannicus was soon poisoned, partly, it was said, because Agrippina showed signs of favouring him against Nero. The emperor gave himself over to voluptuousness, and his devotion to music, the drama and other arts swept him away to the verge of insanity. In 59 he foully murdered his mother. Equally infamous was his treatment of Octavia. After a vain attempt to sully her pure reputation, he divorced her in the year 62 and then killed her, to make way for the notorious Poppaea. She died three years later, but in her case Nero was charged with manslaughter only. Burrus, who died in



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

SIMON IN THE TRIUMPH OF TITUS BEING DRAGGED TO HIS DEATH PLACE.

It was the Romans' ancient custom for the triumphant procession to stay at the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus until they received news that the enemy's general had been slain. This general in the triumph of Titus was Simon, son of Gioras, who is here shown being dragged into the forum and tormented with a rope put round his neck, after he had been led among the other Jewish prisoners in this triumph which celebrated the fall of Jerusalem.

62, was followed as commander of the Praetorians by Tigellinus, a ready instrument to serve the emperor's unbounded licence in all matters, private and public alike. In 64 came the devastating fire at Rome, which is said to have consumed ten out of the fourteen districts into which the city was divided. On a large section of the area Nero built his vast "Golden House," in which, as he said, he was at last housed as a man and not an animal should be. The conflagration was in all probability accidental, one of a long series that afflicted the city of Rome in ancient days. But the fact that the blame was cast on the Christians by authority led to a belief that Nero had burned the capital in order to enjoy the fearsome spectacle.

By the year 65 Nero's manifold enormities led to a widespread conspiracy against him, in which leading senators and even officers of the Imperial Guard were implicated. On its discovery many suffered death or banishment. Among those killed or driven to take their lives were the poet Lucan



From the painting by Sir Lawrence Alma-Tadema, R.A.

By courtesy of T. J. S. Roberts, Esq. (Copyright B.P.C.)

A VISIT OF AGRIPPA TO AUGUSTUS

Agrippa, the chosen advisor and general of Octavianus Augustus, is here shown on a visit to the Emperor, perhaps in Rome or at the country villa of Livia at Porta Prima. Behind Agrippa may be seen his following of friends and officials. A lady, possibly Livia, stands waiting at the bottom of the marble staircase to receive him. It was at the villa that the famous statue of Augustus, shown in the picture, was found.

and the distinguished Stoic, his uncle Seneca. In the following year came another plot and more executions. The Stoic philosophy had, from its first dissemination in Italy, taken a great hold upon the Roman nobles. From the time of the younger Scipio, who was the centre of a Stoic company, this school had always counted many adherents among the highest social class. On these men Nero declared war. Paetus Thrasea, the most conspicuous follower of Stoicism in the Senate, was put to death, and another eminent disciple, Helvidius Priscus, was exiled. At the same time, a far different man, Petronius, the author of the extant "Satires," met his fate. In the latter part of the year 66 and all the year 67 Nero was in Greece, where his pride as musical artist was gratified by the award of the chaplet of victory in the historic gatherings for the Pythian, Isthmian and Nemean games. Other absurd honours were showered upon him by the grovelling Greeks.

In the latter part of the reign of Claudius and throughout the reign of Nero there had been war on some of the frontiers of the empire. On the whole, the conquest of Britain made progress, but in 61 came the great uprising led by Boadicea, queen of the Iceni, whose host blotted out Camalodunum (Colchester), and swept over the towns of Verulamium (St. Albans) and Londinium (London). The insurrection is related to have cost the Romans seventy thousand lives. Serious hostilities with the great Parthian empire were carried on, chiefly by an able general, Corbulo, during many years, peace being concluded in 63. Corbulo's fame was too great to be endured by Nero, who, when in Greece, sent for him and had him put to death. The Jewish race also gave immense trouble to the government. The disquiet caused in Judaea by the vagaries of Caligula had calmed down when Agrippa, prince of two tetrarchies in the north, was assigned by Claudius as ruler of all the dominions that had been possessed by Herod the Great. But on his death in 44 the land was once more handed over to imperial agents called procurators. Unwise administration, working on the fanaticism of the Jews, reduced the province to a state of anarchy, attended by pillage and massacre.

Felix, whom St. Paul encountered, governed badly for eight years, and his successors were worse. In 66 a Roman force was driven from the walls of Jerusalem. In 67 Vespasian, afterwards emperor, assembled for revenge a mighty army. But the death of Nero paralysed the effort, and not till 70 did Titus, Vespasian's son, crush resistance by the capture and destruction of Jerusalem.



Copyright by

THE PANTHEON OF AGRIPPA.

[Cassell & Co. Ltd.]

The Pantheon, built to commemorate Rome's greatest citizens, was a place of special veneration. It is lighted by a circular opening in the dome. Agrippa's Pantheon, built in 27 B.C., was subsequently burned. Hadrian erected the present building, and it has been a Christian church since 609 A.D.

The carnival of disorder amid which Nero lived was rudely interrupted in 68 by excitement among the armies on the frontiers. C. Julius Vindex, the governor of the great Gaulish province of which Lugudunum (Lyons) was the capital, was a Romanized Gaulish noble, and he raised the standard of revolt, aiming, it may be, at some form of autonomy for Gaul. A tried general, Galba, ruler of northern Spain, declared against him, ostensibly in the interest of Nero ; but he was probably disloyal from the first. Meanwhile Vindex was destroyed at Vesontio (Besançon) by Verginius Rufus, the commander in Upper Germany. Galba was in jeopardy ; Nero distrusted him ; the legions of Germany had no liking for him. Suddenly the commandant of the Praetorians in Rome proclaimed the deposition of Nero and the accession of Galba. The Senate, with alacrity, condemned Nero to death, and he took his own life on the ninth day of June in the year 68. Misgovernment had been severely felt by the upper classes in the capital ; but it must not be supposed that the provinces suffered in equal measure. On



Painted specially for this work.

ROMANS HUNTING THE WILD BOAR.

[By G. D. Rowlandson.]

The wild boar chase was one of the most exciting pastimes of the Romans, and it is mentioned with other objects of the chase in Virgil's *Georgics*, and also by Horace. A party is here seen rounding up the boar against nets on the borders of a wood.

the whole, the age was one of great and expanding prosperity, and of progressive civilization both in the West and in the East. With the death of Nero, the ultimate control of the empire fell undisguisedly into the hands of the soldiery, and there it remained so long as the empire lasted ; and it was exercised for the most part with capriciousness, often merely for the purpose of raiding the imperial treasury. It was a great discovery, as Tacitus says, when the troops learned that an emperor could be appointed elsewhere than in Rome. A large part of the revenues had to be spent in the perpetual endeavour to obviate discontent in the army. Gradually the legions changed their character. They came to be recruited in the main from the populations amid which they were stationed, and service became largely hereditary. The marriages of the legionaries, always technically irregular, were, partially at first, fully afterwards, recognized, and the soldier's son commonly followed his father. Thus the different garrisons in the provinces acquired a quasi-national character. This came about in spite of the initial policy of employing troops in districts other than those in which they had been originally levied.

Galba was emperor for only seven months. The reign was unquiet throughout. The provincial legions now disputed the right of the Praetorians to dispose of the throne. The army of Germany



[Copyright by]

THE FESTIVAL OF CASTOR AND POLLUX

The scene is the festival of the anniversary of the battle of Lake Regillus—July 15th. In this the Romans joined issue with the house of Tarquin. Romans believed the issue to have been decided in their favour by the aid of the Twin-Gods, and it is said they headed the Romans into battle, and afterwards brought news of victory to Rome. A temple was built to their honour in the Forum, and there was annually a festival with splendid ceremonial. A procession of knights to the temple also took place.

[Casell & Co. Ltd.]

declared Vitellius, the governor of the lower province, as emperor, and, burning with the passion for plunder, marched over the Alps to enforce the decision. Italy was practically defenceless. Thinking to mitigate his unpopularity and being himself of advanced age, Galba adopted on the tenth day of January, 69, as his son and successor, L. Calpurnius Piso, a man of old noble lineage, but a Stoic student, with little interest in practical life. Five days later he perished, along with Galba and many adherents. The Guard had been won over to support Otho, a friend of Nero, only remarkable as a voluptuary, who had ceded to that emperor his wife Poppaea Sabina. The Senate could but follow the Guard, and the soldiers in the provinces took sides with Otho and Vitellius. The whole of the West acted with the legions of Germany. Otho relied on the Guard, the fleet, and the army of the Danube.

He was popular with the city mob, whose favour Nero had never lost. At first Otho's officers were successful in the fighting which took place in the north of Italy. Had he waited for reinforcements he might have been victorious. But his nerves could not bear suspense, and he gave orders for a decisive engagement to be fought near Cremona, with disastrous issue. He failed his men, who had not lost heart, by committing suicide, after a reign of about two months. The Senate recognized Vitellius. But the legions of Syria and Judaea now took a hand in the game of emperor-making, and declared their general T. Flavius Vespasianus (Vespasian) ruler of the empire. The first step, however, was taken by the governor of Egypt, Ti. Julius Alexander, a Jew, and a nephew of Philo, the Alexandrine philosopher. He issued a proclamation in Vespasian's favour. The troops of the Danube, who had supported Otho, now joined. Meanwhile Vitellius disorganized his supporters by untimely military reforms. Once more a momentous struggle took place near Cremona. The soldiers of Vespasian won, and Vitellius was deserted by many of the supporters whom he had held in reserve. The Praetorians were faithful to him, but their camp at Rome was stormed, with much attendant massacre. This ended the period of revolution, which had lasted more than a year.

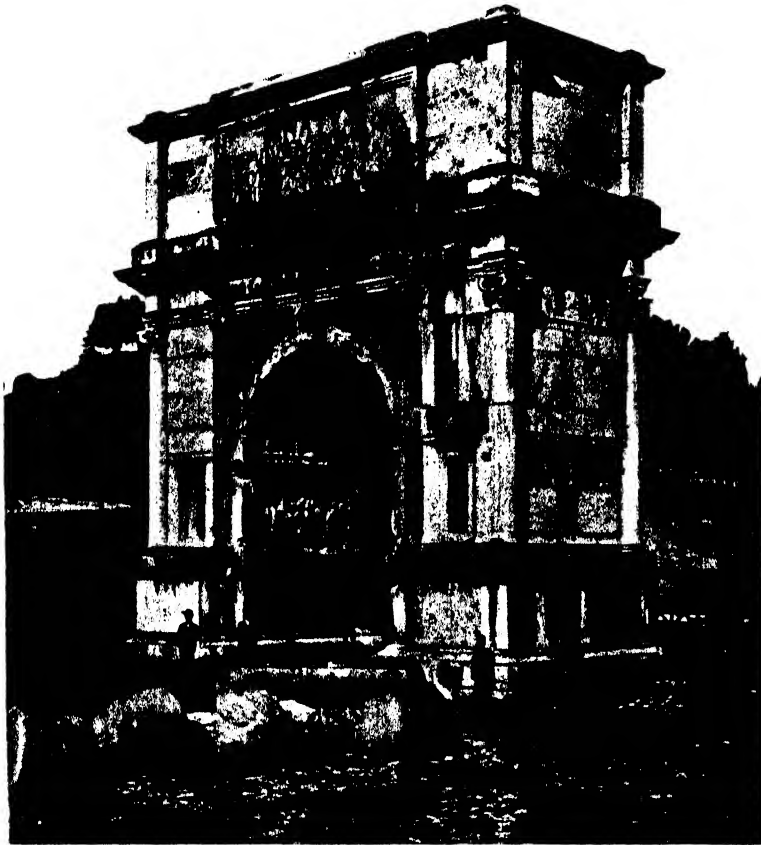


Photo by]

THE ARCH OF TITUS.

[Anderson.

Beneath this, Titus and his triumphant army passed on the return to Rome from the conquest of Jerusalem. The arch, which is built upon the Sacred Way, is one of the most beautiful memorials of ancient Rome, and the bas-reliefs on the inside are of great interest.

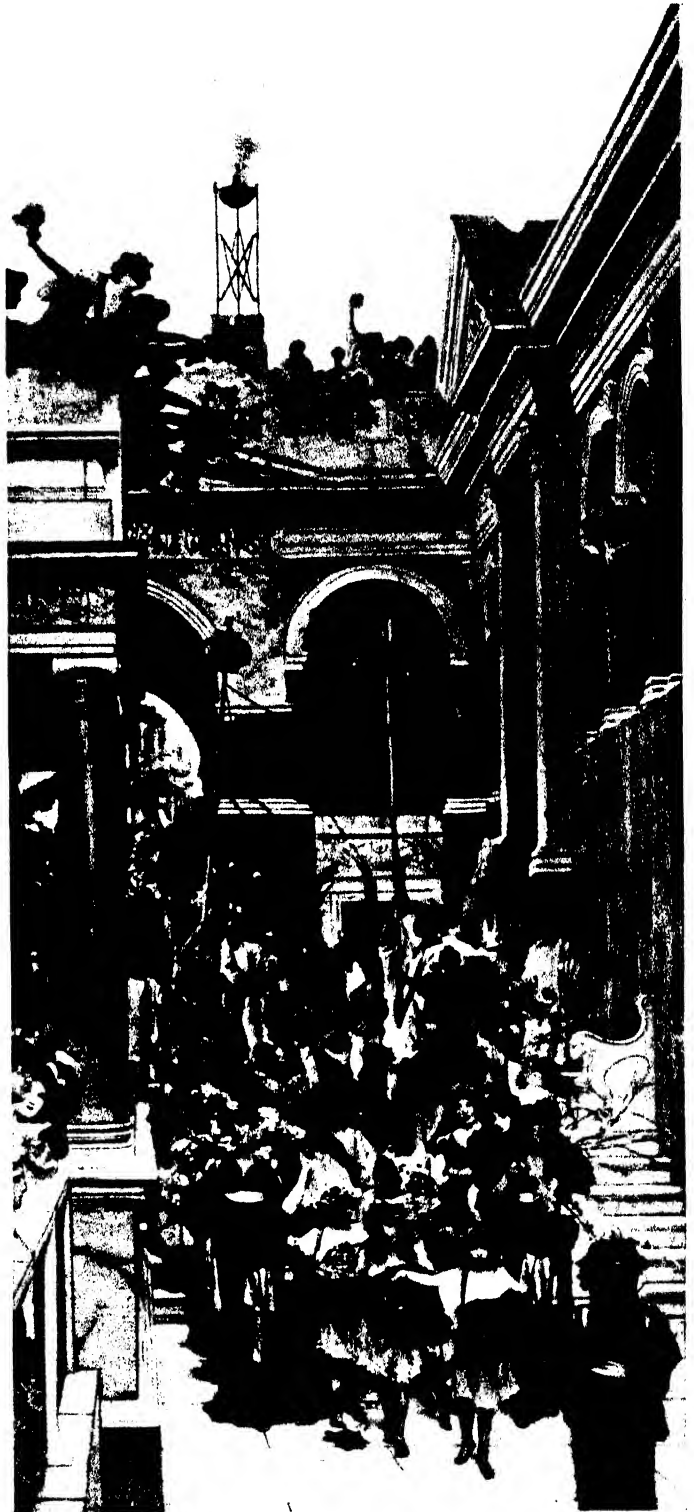
pasian won, and Vitellius was deserted by many of the supporters whom he had held in reserve. The Praetorians were faithful to him, but their camp at Rome was stormed, with much attendant massacre. This ended the period of revolution, which had lasted more than a year.

The new dynasty, known as the "Flavian," continued but twenty-seven years. Vespasian was the first emperor who had sprung from the ranks of the people and had no connection with the old Republican nobility. The chief notes of his reign were simplicity, economy and common-sense reform. In law, in administration, in finance, in the army, in the provinces, many salutary changes were introduced, but they were handled with caution. The emperor's son Titus, the victor of Jerusalem, was almost a co-partner with his father in the government. The Senate was decorously treated, but time had given the emperor a more dominant position over it than Augustus had held. The reign opened with trouble on

the Rhine and Danube. The German Batavi in the lowlands near the North Sea had rebelled against Vitellius, owing to the pressure of the Roman conscription. Vespasian had not unnaturally encouraged them. Later, two Gauls, Julius Classicus and Julius Tutor, proclaimed the independence of Gaul, and were joined by the Batavi, under their leader Julius Civilis, and by the legions of Germany. This formidable insurrection was with difficulty suppressed. In 71 Vespasian and Titus celebrated a triumph over Judaea, and the temple of Janus was closed, for the sixth time in history, as a sign of universal peace. In 72 the two assumed the ancient office of censor. A little later Titus held the office alone, and later still his brother Domitian filled it, after which it disappeared from history, with the exception of a ghostly revival in the third century.

In June of the year 79 Vespasian died. He did excellent, if not showy service in healing the wounds of civil war, and had reason for inscribing on some of his coins "Rome rising once more" (*Roma resurgens*). His son and successor, Titus, was an abler man and a better commander than his father, but less simple and more given to the sensuous life, as was natural in one who had spent much of his youth at the imperial court. His reign was notable for great public works, of which the chief was the "Flavian amphitheatre," which we know by a later name, the "Coliseum." A great fire damaged many historic buildings in the capital, which Titus intended to repair, but he died after a reign of little more than two years, and left the work mainly to his younger brother, Domitian. The arch of Titus extant in Rome was erected by Domitian. Both Vespasian and Titus were consecrated as divine.

With the accession of Domitian a change came over the spirit of the government. In the long interval which elapsed between the proclamation of Vespasian at Alexandria as emperor and his arrival in Rome, Domitian, then in the capital, had incurred the displeasure of his father. Although customary honours were paid to him,



Painted by Alma Tadema.]

[By permission of the B.P.C. Ltd., London.

A PROCESSION OF FLORA.

The carnivals of countries bordering on the Mediterranean may have had their origin in the Festival of Flora—a festival of no religious importance. It was the custom to celebrate the coming of spring with processions in which those who took part were decked with flowers.

Vespasian never trusted him with important functions, and made Titus sole heir to the succession. Domitian was embittered when he reached the throne, and was minded to stretch personal government to the uttermost. At times during his reign arbitrary executions and banishments of men in the upper ranks of the citizens were rife. Although Domitian prided himself on being a patron of literature, and especially poetry, claiming to be himself a poet, his feud with the Stoics and other

philosophers was bitter. In the tradition of the Church he is the second persecutor, Nero being the first. He put to death his cousin Flavius Clemens, and his cousin's wife Domitilla, also a relation of his own, on a charge of "godlessness," which has often been interpreted to mean an adherence to Christianity. Yet the evidence, fairly considered, shows that the reign as a whole was beneficial to the empire. Domitian strengthened the Roman defences on the Rhine and Danube, where formidable foes had to be encountered. Some barbarian names of evil omen now come to the front, especially those of the Marcomanni and the Dacians (Daci), who occupied part of modern Hungary and were bought off by Domitian.

In 96 Domitian met his death by a conspiracy in which some of his most intimate servants were concerned, with the officers of the Praetorian Guard. What delighted the aristocracy infuriated the soldiers and left the populace of the capital indifferent. The murderers could not ultimately be saved from punishment. The three rulers of the Flavian dynasty deserved, with all their faults, to be regretted by the provincials. The empire flourished under them. Civilization advanced rapidly in all the frontier provinces. Despotism, bad as it was, affected only a small section in the capital.

As on the death of Tiberius, so on the death of Domitian, the Senate dreamed for a moment of a return to the Republican constitution. But all the world outside knew it to be a



Painted by Alma Tadema.]

AN EGYPTIAN JUGGLER.

The scene depicted is the peristyle of a Roman citizen's house in the Graeco-Roman period. The colonnaded rooms led on to an enclosed garden or courtyard, which in summer afforded a retreat from the heat. The people in the foreground appear to be watching an Egyptian, who seeks his fortune at the capital as a juggler.

dream. The senators consoled themselves by the formal condemnation of the late emperor's memory, the opposite of the divinization which Augustus, Claudius, Vespasian and Titus had enjoyed. They chose an emperor who favoured what was now known as "liberty"; that is, rational administration with fair regard to the Senate. The new ruler was M. Cocceius Nerva, a prominent senator of advanced age. He and Trajan, the emperor who followed, were held to have reconciled things formerly



Julius Caesar, a great imperial ruler.
63 B.C.—A.D. 14.



Tiberius, upholder of the constitution
and empire. 42 B.C.—A.D. 37.



[Caligula, a cruel and profligate ruler
A.D. 12-41.



Claudius, a humane ruler, interested in
literature. A.D. 41-54.



Nero, a cruel and vicious ruler, but
enthusiastic for art. A.D. 37-64.



Vitellius, weak-willed and vicious.
A.D. 15-69.



Vespasian, a soldier with character and
ability. A.D. 9-79.



Titus, conqueror of Jerusalem. A wise
ruler. A.D. 40-81.



Trajan, a great military organizer.
A.D. 53-117.



Photos by

Hadrian, a most capable ruler, with great
and varied talents. A.D. 76-138.



Marcus Aurelius, a Stoic philosopher, an-
tagonistic to Christianity. A.D. 121-180.



Commodus, vain and profligate, no
talent as a ruler. A.D. 161-192.

[Monnell & Co.]

ROMAN EMPERORS.



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

THE FORUM OF TRAJAN.

Broken shafts alone remain of the four rows of pillars which stood in the Forum. Trajan's column, which was entirely built of marble and faced with reliefs, still stands. It is surmounted by a bronze statue of St. Peter, which replaced a statue of Trajan in 1587.

irreconcilable, "empire and freedom" (*imperium et libertas*). The legions, perhaps remembering some earlier failures, acquiesced in the choice. Nerva instituted some wholesome reforms, though he was hampered by the poverty in which Domitian had left the treasury. Many parts of Italy needed cultivators, and Nerva made an extensive plan for settling farmers on the soil. He also began the remarkable institution of the "alimenta," by which revenues were assigned for the purpose of helping parents to rear children to replenish the population. Nerva, who was no soldier, wisely adopted as his son and successor a tried commander, the celebrated Trajan. He was the first emperor whose immediate forefathers did not belong to Italy, so the selection marks a notable departure. His home was at Italica in Spain, where soldiers of Scipio Africanus had been settled at the end of the Second Punic War. Trajan's father had risen in the army from the ranks to high offices. Early in 98 Nerva died, and Trajan was recognized without difficulty.

The new emperor lived burgess-like among the burgesses, and

soldier-like among the soldiers, and did not unduly stretch his authority. He repressed the evils which had sprung from the class of professional informers (*delatores*), who had become a pest in the reigns of Nero and Domitian. Trajan's administration on its civil side was careful and conscientious. In one respect his reign marks an epoch. The abuses in the internal government of the city-commonwealths of the empire led him to begin a system of imperial supervision which had in the end disastrous results. But the reign stands out as before all a period of war. Fortunately Trajan proved himself an adept in the maintenance of military discipline. The arrogance of the Praetorians led him, soon after his adoption, to carry off a portion to Germany, where their unruliness was cured, and their brethren in Rome learned a lesson. There was disquiet on the Danube frontier before Trajan ascended the throne. He very much extended the defences on the line between the Rhine and Danube, and on the Danube itself. Two severe conflicts had to be carried on with Decebalus, king of the Dacians. The first began in 101, and in the following year the Dacian capital, Sarmizegethusa, was taken and peace made with glory. In 104 the task had to be resumed and in 106 Decebalus was decisively beaten, and put an end to his own life. It was in this war that Trajan built his celebrated bridge over the Danube; and the victory is commemorated by the great sculptured column which exists still in Rome. Dacia was annexed as a Roman province. From this time onward, for

three centuries at least, the defence of the frontier near the Danube was more vital to the existence of the empire than that of the frontier by the Rhine. A more serious struggle still was entered on in 114 against the great Parthian empire. Even when rent by internal dissensions, as now, it was a dangerous enemy for Rome to encounter. As was the case with most of the disputes between the Romans and the Parthians, the succession to the throne of Armenia provided the occasion of the quarrel. At first progress was rapid. A new province, that of Mesopotamia, was added to the Roman dominions. Then ensued widespread reaction; great cities, Edessa, Nisibis, and that splendid outpost of Hellenism, Seleucia, revolted, and were with great difficulty recaptured. An attack made by Trajan himself on the mighty fortress of Hatra failed. Then came news of risings among Jews in widely separated lands. The excitement spread from Mesopotamia to Judaea, Cyprus, Cyrene and Egypt, and was accompanied by extensive massacres, on the side of the rebels and on that of the authorities. Amid deep gloom, Trajan died in August, 117, in Asia Minor, at the age of sixty-three, leaving perilous problems for his successor Hadrian to solve.

Hadrian was only a little over forty when he came to the throne. He was a native of the same town in Spain, Italica, that had given birth to Trajan, whose kinsman and ward he was. The connection was strengthened by his marriage with Sabina, the emperor's great-niece. He was carefully trained by Trajan, and trusted with high duties, so that there was an expectation that he would be emperor. Trajan adopted him, or rather was declared to have adopted him, as son immediately before his death. Apart from a futile conspiracy by some great officers, his rule was quietly accepted, and Trajan was consecrated as a divinity. Like his predecessor, Hadrian was simple in his tastes. His liking for art and letters was genuine, and during his reign there was a sort of artistic revival. No Roman ruler ever



Painted specially for this work

THE KINDNESS OF TRAJAN.

[By J. H. Valda.]

In the course of a battle against the Dacians near Tapae, such a large number of Romans were wounded that the bandages gave out. It is reported of the Emperor Trajan that he tore his own clothing in pieces as bandages for the soldiers; moreover, he caused an altar to be raised in honour of those who had fallen in the battle, and funeral sacrifices to be offered.

spent himself more devotedly in the service of his subjects. The greater part of his reign was passed in extensive tours of inspection, planned for the enforcement of efficiency. He left behind him in all directions memorials of his liberality. Hundreds of towns were adorned at his cost. His reforms in finance were far-reaching and increased the resources of the state. The Eastern conquests of Trajan were abandoned. His visit to Britain led to the construction of the "Roman Wall" between Solway and Tyne, of which imposing remains exist to this day. The only really serious military operations which he had to undertake were against the Jews in Palestine. Hadrian founded a military colony at Jerusalem, and a temple of Jupiter Capitolinus was built on the site of the temple of Jehovah. The flame of war ran through the land and led to its devastation, almost beyond the hope of recovery. For two years the Roman authority was extinguished in Jerusalem (132-134). The emperor's exertions

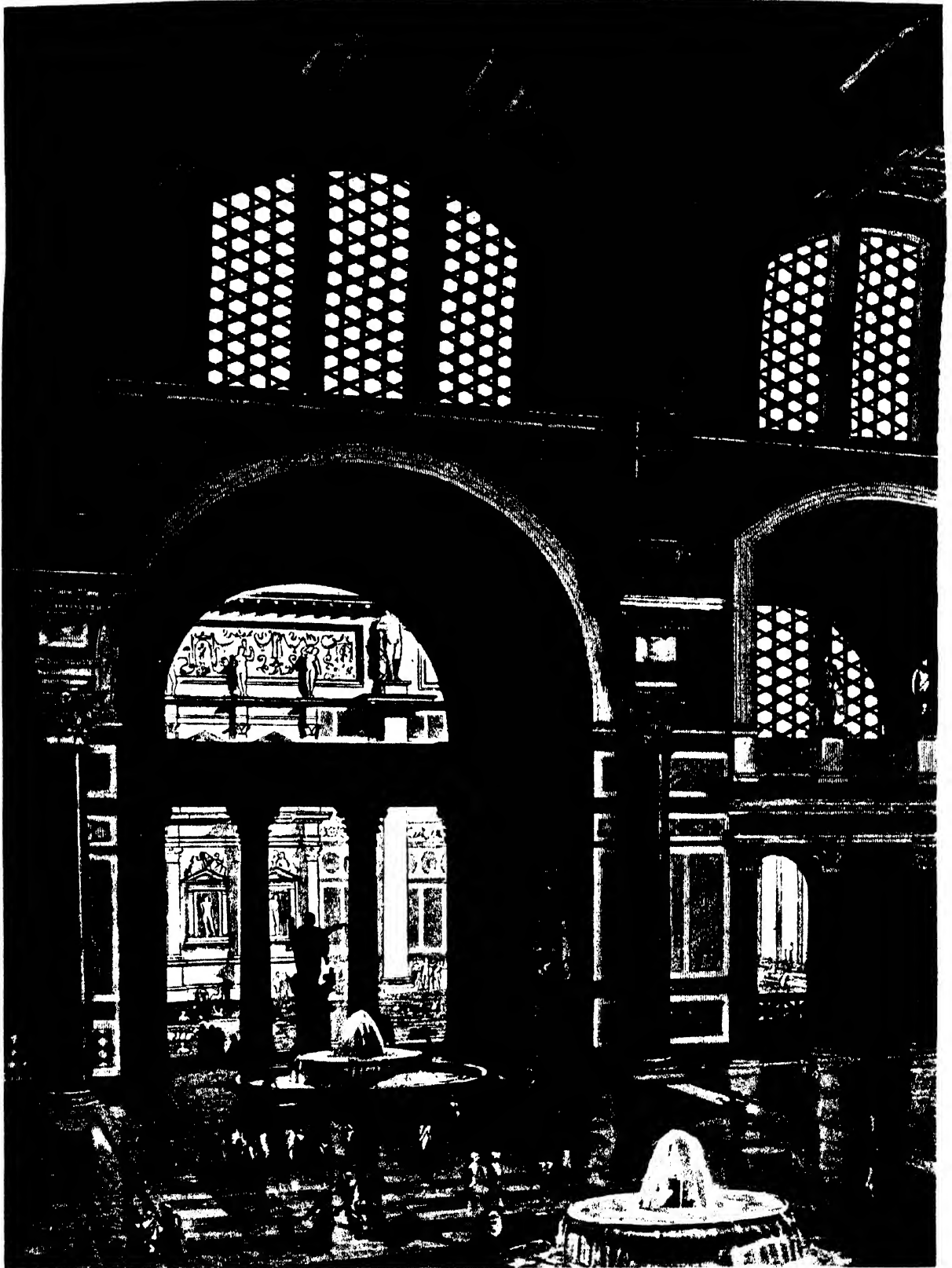


THE ROMAN EMPIRE, 14 A.D.—117 A.D.

The extent of the Roman Empire was very great. Speaking roughly, it reached from the Atlantic coast-line to the Caspian Sea, and from the coast of North Holland to that of Africa. The islands of the Mediterranean Sea were also included.

wore him out, and during 137, and till his death in July, 138, he lay sick in his great villa at Tibur (Tivoli), the relics of which are familiar to those who visit Rome, or at Baiae, the great health resort on the Bay of Naples. He was childless, and his first designated successor, L. Aelius Caesar, whom he adopted, died before him. In his place was substituted T. Aurelius Antoninus, known to us as Antoninus Pius, a prominent senator, whose government of the province of Asia had brought him renown. Antoninus, being without sons, was directed to adopt as his sons the future emperor, Lucius Verus, son of L. Aelius Caesar, and also a nephew of his wife, T. Annius Verus.

The personal government of Hadrian had offended the senators, and Antoninus only with difficulty persuaded them to allow him to be deified. In 139 the great mausoleum of Hadrian was completed and received his ashes. This building is the "Castle of St. Angelo," which has been famous in the subsequent history of the city of Rome. Antoninus is the one emperor of Rome who had no enemies



By permission of]

THE THERMAE OF CARACALLA.

[Crassell & Co., Ltd.

Bathing was of special importance to the Romans, and buildings such as Caracalla's were on a sumptuous scale, with seats for one thousand up to three thousand bathers. The larger thermae were more than bathing establishments, having also gymnasiums, and thus were made use of as places for general intercourse.



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

A BAS-RELIEF FROM THE VILLA ALBANI AT ROME.

The Emperor Marcus Aurelius was a Stoic philosopher. He is here seen in the company of Pax and Roma. The figure of Pax is also spoken of as Faustina, his wife. It was from this famous villa that Napoleon is said to have taken some three hundred sculptures to adorn the galleries of Paris.

to speak evil of him. He continued in every respect the traditions of his predecessor, and his reign was marked by no startling events. In Britain, after the suppression of an insurrection, there was an advance, and a new defensive work was constructed between the Forth and Clyde. But the effective occupation of the region between this and the wall of Hadrian did not continue long.

Antoninus died in 161, having indicated as his successor his adopted son and actual son-in-law, the celebrated philosopher Marcus Aurelius. But Marcus insisted on sharing power with his adoptive brother, Lucius Verus, to whom he gave his daughter in marriage. For the first time the imperial authority was placed in commission—an omen of things to come. The two emperors acted together as the two consuls did in the days of the Republic. There was no formal division of duties.

Of the two philosopher-emperors of Rome, Marcus Aurelius and Julian, the earlier was much the stronger man. Both have revealed

themselves in writings that survive. In his boyhood Marcus attracted the attention and favour of Hadrian. His education and training were complete on all sides, political, military, literary, philosophic, but philosophy became his passion; all the rest was duty. The Stoics, who had been harassed by Nero and the Flavian rulers, now had their revenge, for a disciple was on the throne. His book of meditations, addressed "to himself" (written in Greek amid the turmoil of war on the Danube), has been ever since one of the moral classics of the world. Julian described it as the aim of Marcus "to imitate the gods, to have the fewest possible wants, and to do the greatest amount of good to the largest number." His reign was, on the whole, prosperous, though the attacks on the empire by outer barbarians began to presage its final destruction.

Early in the reign began one of the ever profitless wars with Parthia. Lucius Verus nominally directed the operations, but the credit for success belonged chiefly to a brilliant officer, Avidius Cassius. After three campaigns peace was signed in 166, and the Romans retained some of the strongholds which had been abandoned by Hadrian. Meanwhile German tribes had been giving trouble, not so much in the direction of the Rhine, as in that of the Danube. Some names not noted in earlier annals, those of the Marcomanni, the Quadi, the Sarmatae, the Hermunduri, the Vandals, now became names of dread. Many of the provinces lying between Italy and the Black Sea were invaded, and the barbarians even made their way to the eastern gate of Italy at Aquileia. There was a panic such as had not arisen since the Cimbrians and Teutons appeared in Gaul and the valley of the Po, nearly three centuries earlier. Both emperors went to the Danube. In 169 Verus died on his way back to Italy. In 175, after eight campaigns, and terrible Roman

losses, peace was attained. The tribes submitted to serious restrictions on their liberty. But two principles were followed which led the Romans into trouble. Large masses of the Germans were settled within the empire, and military service was enjoined, not only on these, but on the outer barbarians. The barbarians refused, however, to accept these arrangements as final. War summoned Marcus afresh to the Danube, and he died at Vindobona (Vienna) in 180. During his reign others than the Germans caused serious commotion. The Picts in Britain made violent attacks on the Roman province, and the Mauri (Moors) from Africa invaded Spain. The peace of 175 was hastened by news from the East. The hero of the Parthian war, Avidius Cassius, hearing a rumour of the emperor's death, declared himself emperor, but was soon afterwards killed by one of his own centurions, and the movement collapsed.

The evil effects of incessant warfare during the reign were aggravated by the advent of frequently recurring pestilences, which seriously weakened many parts of the empire. The finances were in disorder when Marcus died. These misfortunes neutralized to some extent the unwavering endeavours of the emperor to secure sound administration and desirable reforms. On the whole, the influence of the Senate perceptibly declined during the reign. Marcus acted unwisely when, three years before his death, he made his son Commodus his equal partner, then a boy of sixteen years. His life exemplifies the frequent rebound from a father of lofty purity to a son of foul life. But the boy's education was not altogether to blame; nature had in some respects poorly endowed him. Commodus was with his father when he died. His ministers were fortunately soon able to conclude a fairly favourable peace with the barbarians, and he returned to Rome. For a short time he was guided by his father's advisers. In 183 occurred a serious conspiracy, promoted by members of his own family. Annia Lucilla, the sister of



Painted specially for this work]

THE "THUNDERING LEGION."

[By J. H. Valda.

In the army of Marcus Aurelius there was a Christian legion. It is said that at a critical time the prayers of the Christians brought rain to the Romans, who were suffering from heat and thirst. But lightning wrought great havoc amongst their enemies—the Quadi. By special edict they were named the "Thundering Legion."

Commodus, combined with her cousin, Ummidius Quadratus, to procure his assassination. The appointed assassin missed his stroke. The failure was followed by numerous executions of persons guilty and innocent, including the empress Crispina, who was charged with adultery. Commodus went into retirement for the enjoyments of a loose life, and placed the government in the hands of Perennis, the commandant of the Praetorians, an unscrupulous instrument of the emperor's caprice, and especially of his hatred for the Senate. Perennis fell in consequence of a demand by mutinous legions in Britain, enforced by an unparalleled deputation of fifteen hundred soldiers to Rome. Order in Britain was with difficulty restored by Pertinax, who in later life became emperor. Perennis was succeeded by a man as bad, Cleander, who shared power over the emperor with Marcia, the leading concubine, and one or two chamberlains. In 189 Cleander fell, and was replaced by a man of the same type, Aemilius Laetus. Commodus showed more and more signs of insanity. On the last night of the year 192 he was murdered at the instigation of Laetus, Marcia, and the chief chamberlain, Eclectus. There was, as in the case of Nero and Domitian, a "damning of his memory" (*damnatio memoriae*).



By permission of]

COMMODUS AS A GLADIATOR.

[The B.P.C. Ltd., London.

The qualities of Commodus as a gladiator are doubtful. But he is said to have made claims for over seven hundred victories, and for these he received an enormous sum, which gives purpose to his parade. He is seen in the arena as a victorious gladiator, clothed with the distinctiveness of Hercules.

Since the death of Domitian there had been orderly succession to the throne, each monarch indicating his successor. But the army had only been kept in good humour by gifts which became more and more lavish, and now anarchy became chronic. At first an effort was made, as on the death of Domitian, to renovate the influence of the Senate. An aged senator, P. Helvius Pertinax, whose grandfather had been a slave, was chosen. His career had been distinguished; but after less than three months he fell a victim to the Praetorians, who were outraged by his policy of restoring reasonable government. There is a fable that the soldiers now formally put up the imperial office to auction and knocked it down to the highest bidder, a senator called Didius Julianus. The only grain of truth in this is the fact that no one could reach the throne without scattering money abundantly among the troops. The legions in the provinces hastened to present their candidates. Niger, governor of Syria, secured the allegiance of the East. Albinus, legate of Britain, made himself independent. The legions of Pannonia, who resented the murder of Pertinax, put forward their commander, L. Septimius Severus, and he was recognized by the Senate. After a three months' "reign," Julianus was assassinated. The new ruler was a strenuous soldier and a hard character, though he was not without literary education. He was a native of Leptis Magna in northern Africa, and he and other members of his family spoke Latin with an African accent. Such a man could not be expected to feel much reverence



By permission of Louis Wolff & Co. Ltd., London, W.

WHEN ROME WAS MISTRESS OF THE WORLD.

[Owners of the Copyright and Publishers of the Large Engraving.]

With the dominion of Rome at its zenith, the pleasures of society often took extravagant but trifling forms. The scene is a country villa, possibly near Pompeii. To amuse an audience of wealthy citizens a circus-girl is seen holding a hoop, through which the leopard cubs are made to jump. Though the scene may seem to lack reality, it was probably very true. The influence which made such manners and customs possible was exotic, and gathered from the East. It must be remembered that the festivals of Bacchus, which were nothing short of orgies, had their origin in Greece. And as with Rome, they came in after the heroic age.

either for Italy or for the Senate. His first measure was to disband the Praetorians, who had originally been recruited from Italy only, and then also from the provinces nearest to it. A new Guard was enrolled, for which chosen soldiers from all the frontier legions were eligible, and thus the Guard became representative of the army as a whole. Order was re-established in the capital; guilty men were punished and Pertinax was deified. Then Severus dealt with Niger in the East. The contest was short and the victory of Severus decisive. The legions which defended the line of the Danube met those which kept the line of the Euphrates and easily conquered them. At the end of 194 Niger was a fugitive, and was caught and killed. Stern punishment was dealt out to the cities and potentates who had backed him. Severus did not return to Europe till 196, when the great city of Byzantium fell after a three years' siege. It remained for him to deal with Clodius Albinus, the governor of Britain. Severus had quieted him by holding out to him a prospect of succession to the throne, and had bestowed on him the title of Caesar. Albinus now took the designation of Augustus, claiming the empire. He passed over to Gaul, and received much support there and from the West generally. In February, 197, a mighty battle, in which three hundred thousand men were engaged, was fought and won by Severus, on the plain north of Lugudunum (Lyons). Albinus fell in the fight. Severus took dire vengeance on his supporters, and condemned twenty-nine senators for their alleged sympathy with the pretender. As another warning to intending rebels, he punished the murderers of Commodus and placed him among the divinized emperors (*divi imperatores*). In the same year Severus went to the East to attack Parthia, and did not return till 202, when an exhausting struggle was closed by an unsatisfactory peace. The



Copyright by]

THE COUNTRY VILLA

[Cassell & Co. Ltd.

Pliny writes of two kinds of villas—the country seat and the farm-house. The latter were simple and for dependents on estates. Beautiful sites were selected for the former, generally on the slopes of hills. From the house-front, terraces dropped down to a lake. A notable example is the Villa d'Este, near Tivoli.



Painted specially for this work

SEVERUS CROSSING THE ALPS.

[By E. A. Morrow.]

Septimius Severus, hearing that Albinus had obtained a following as emperor, resolved to cross the Alps in the depths of winter to crush the rising. In a great battle near Lugudunum (Lyon) in February, 197 A.D., Albinus was completely defeated. Severus, who wished to gain the succession for his children, had tried to remove Albinus by treachery.

advantage lay with Rome, mainly owing to internal dissensions in Parthia. A few peaceful years ensued, but turbulence in Britain called Severus there. Some successes won against the barbarians who invaded the province from the north were dearly bought. Severus died at Eboracum (York) on the fourth day of February, 211, at the age of sixty-five. He had made, as ruler, a great advance towards the undisguised autocracy which less than a century was to see fully established. The army was obedient during the reign, but for this a heavy price was paid. More money than ever was spent on the troops, and the injunction of Severus to his sons was to "enrich" the army. Other privileges were bestowed upon it. The irregular marriages of the legionaries were further recognized, and the camps became but places of exercise, the men living a family life in the towns which sprang up near by. Severus broke with the old tradition that no legions could be quartered in Italy. Such power as had remained to the Senate was severely restricted. The nomination of magistrates and of provincial governors passed over entirely to the emperor. Rome was rapidly sinking to the rank of an ordinary municipality. In general administration Severus was laborious and upright, somewhat after the fashion of Hadrian. He was certainly one of the ablest of the Roman emperors.

The family of Severus gave him trouble. His wife, Julia Domna, was an able and influential lady, a patroness of literary men and philosophers. She was of Syrian origin, her father having held a hereditary priesthood of the god Elagabalus at Emesa. She had two sons, M. Aurelius Antoninus, afterwards known as Caracalla (a nickname derived from a peculiar kind of garment which he loved to wear), and P. Septimius Geta. The elder was only twelve years old when in 198 he was named "Augustus," and so placed on a nominal equality with his father. In 209 his brother reached the same dignity. Imperial decrees thereafter ran in the names of the three "Augusti." An unfortunate act of Severus was to make Plautianus, the commander of the Praetorians, a sort of vice-emperor, like Sejanus under Tiberius. Caracalla was forced to marry the daughter of Plautianus, and hating him for this reason, persuaded the emperor to put him to death as a traitor. The two young princes were at enmity long before their father died. He had educated them carefully, but his last years were darkened by their unrestrained passions. Much strife was threatened by their respective partisans after their father died, but when a year had passed, Caracalla removed the peril by ending his brother's life. There ensued

an indiscriminate massacre of all who were supposed to have supported Geta. The historians declare that twenty thousand men and women perished. There were many notable victims, including the celebrated lawyer Papinian, and a sister of the emperor Commodus. Geta's memory was condemned. When this occurred to a deceased emperor or other distinguished victim, his name was erased from all inscriptions. In the year 212 Caracalla issued his famous decree, whereby, according to the ordinary statement, all free men within the Roman empire acquired the status of Roman citizens. This view is not quite correct. There were certain exceptions, and non-citizens are found in considerable numbers in later times. The many thousands of municipalities in the empire were not required to alter their internal economy. Athens, for example, kept its institutions unchanged. The rest of Caracalla's history is filled with aimless excesses, which suggest madness, but if the historian Dio may be believed, his intellect was acute. Early in 214 he left Rome for the East, and never returned. The pretext was a Parthian war, but the operations were neither important nor successful. In 215 he went to Egypt



[By permission of]

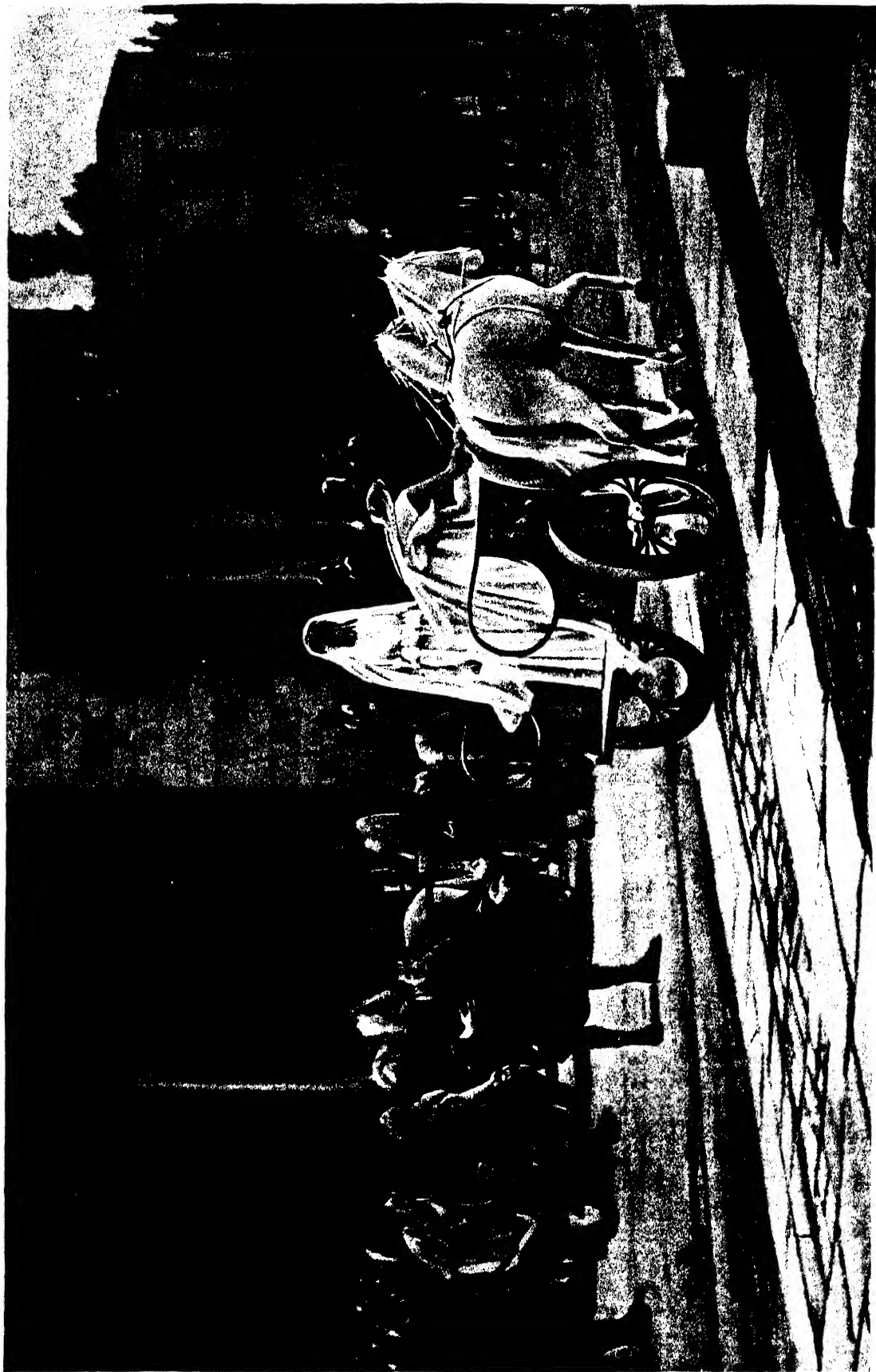
THE EMPEROR CARACALLA.

[The B.P.C. Ltd., London.]

The reign of the Emperor Caracalla was characterized by brutal and inhuman excesses. For a time he shared with his brother Geta supreme power, but to gain this for himself he murdered Geta in revolting circumstances. His extravagance was great, and taxation and extortion were rife. To increase the revenue, citizenship was bestowed on all free inhabitants of the empire.

and deluged Alexandria with blood, because, it was said, some of the inhabitants had jeered at him. In April, 217, he was assassinated near Carrhae at the instance of Macrinus, his commandant of the Guard. He was regretted by the soldiers, whom he had won by largess, and by free association with them. He was a great builder. Among his memorials are the remains of his gigantic baths in Rome, and part of the great temple of Jupiter at Baalbek.

Macrinus, who was, like Severus, a native of Africa, held his ground as emperor for little more than a year. He was the first who had never had a seat in the Senate before he reached the throne. He never visited Rome, and the concessions he made to the Senate, in the hope of strengthening his position, had little effect. His efforts to control the army led to his fall. Julia Domna, Caracalla's mother, took her own life when her son was killed. Her sister Julia Maesa had two daughters, Julia Soaemias and Julia Mamaea. These three women, all of remarkable character, were interned by Macrinus at their native place, and were able, partly by command of wealth, to win over a section of the army stationed near by. A son of Julia Soaemias, only fourteen years of age, was proclaimed emperor. He was priest



By permission of]

THE PASSING OF THE VESTALS.

Two Vestal virgins are here seen driving through Rome, and there appears to have been a meeting with prisoners. It was a privilege of mercy which enabled Vestals to pardon prisoners condemned to death when they passed them in the streets by chance. The Vestals lived in great splendour, and their privileges were many and varied

[Meura, Braun et Cie.



Photo by

THE ALDOBRANDINI MARRIAGE.

[Anderson.]

A wall-painting at Rome, representing a bride and bridegroom, with friends, on their marriage-day.

of the Syrian Sun-god Elagabalus, and is known in history by the name of the divinity with whom he identified himself. His official title was M. Aurelius Antoninus, the name of Caracalla, whose son, according to his own and his mother's shameless pretence, he claimed to be. Disaffection to Macrinus spread among the troops and he was defeated near Antioch, and killed in Cappadocia. There are no fouler pages in historical records than those which are filled by the Oriental extravagances of Elagabalus. Even the semblance of orderly government disappeared. The imperial ladies, especially the emperor's grandmother, Julia Maesa, wasted the revenues, in league with the eunuch Gannys, who had assisted in the overthrow of Macrinus. At last the soldiers intervened, and called upon Elagabalus to accept as colleague his cousin, Alexianus, a boy of thirteen or fourteen, son of Julia Mamaea. When Elagabalus showed himself recalcitrant, a military mutiny, in the year 222, swept away him, his mother and Gannys. So Alexianus came to the throne and took the name of M. Aurelius Severus Alexander.

As Julia Maesa had been dominant during the reign of her grandson Elagabalus, so the mother of Alexander, Julia Mamaea, was supreme during his years of minority; but she saw the need of reform, and wisely called to her aid a committee of the Senate, and gave that body once more some kind of place in the government of the empire. The revenue was carefully nursed. Great effort was made



Photo by

A CORN-SHIP.

[Anderson.]

A fresco painting found at Ostia, probably representing a state corn-ship, which supplied public needs from Egypt.

to sweep away abuses in the government of the provinces and in the administration of the law at Rome. Some of the greatest of the Roman lawyers were servants of the dynasty of the Severi, and they were allowed scope in the beneficial development of the legal system. Alexander was a cultivated man, of sensitive nature and on the whole of right principle. He was not fitted to be a soldier, and although he strove hard to keep the army in discipline and good humour, it ultimately wrought his ruin. There were many mutinies in different provinces during the reign, and some conspiracies in the capital. The immediate cause of the final catastrophe was war in the East, now rendered more formidable by the rise of the Sassanid dynasty, who represented the old Persian element, long suppressed by the Parthians. For the name Parthia that of Persia is now substituted. The operations, which lasted from 231 to 233, left things much as they had been before, though Alexander



Painted specially for this work

[By J. A. Bryan.]

THE PRAETORIAN RISING AGAINST ULPIAN.

The prefect Ulpian, by his reform of privileges granted to the Praetorian Guards by Elagabalus, had caused great discontent amongst them. To the people matters were the reverse. Discussion resulted in armed conflict between the two parties, and Ulpian was subsequently murdered by Praetorians at the Imperial Palace.

claimed to have been victorious. Not long after peace had been secured on the Euphrates the emperor had to meet trouble on the Rhine and Danube, due to the withdrawal of troops for the Eastern war. Alexander, accompanied, as always, by his mother, angered the soldiers by attempting to bribe the Germans to desist from attack. In March, 235, Alexander and Mamaea were killed at Moguntiacum (Mainz). No member of the family now survived.

Then the empire entered on an era of anarchy, in which the soldiery at times were able to split it into fragments. For this there was no greater cause than the custom of lavishing largess upon the army at the beginning of a reign. There was certain profit for the legions of a province if they proclaimed their commander as emperor, and for him to refuse involved almost certain death. Unity, or rather some approach to it, was not secured till Diocletian was seated securely in power, near the end of the century, and peace was even then not long preserved. From this time forward the decline of the

empire in civilization and in strength was speedy and manifest, though it did not affect all portions of the Roman dominions equally at the same time. The period between the assassination of Severus Alexander and the accession of Diocletian in 284 must be passed over rapidly. The struggles of the numerous ephemeral emperors have little interest for posterity.

Maximinus, who succeeded Alexander, was the son of a Thracian peasant, and could only speak Latin imperfectly. His career had been entirely military, but he was in many ways a good representative of the army and fitted to rule the empire in a soldier's fashion. Naturally he was unpopular with the Senate in Rome, for he rudely brushed it aside. He never visited the capital. He fought with much success against Germans and Dacians, and bestowed care on the great roads all over the empire. It is said that he confiscated for military purposes the sums set aside previously for maintaining the distribution of food in Rome, and for exhibitions there, and even robbed the temples of their revenue. The Senate was ready to favour any opponent of Maximinus who might arise. A peasant revolt in Africa caused

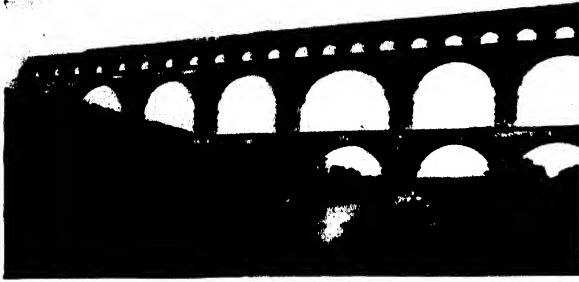


Painted by Couture.]

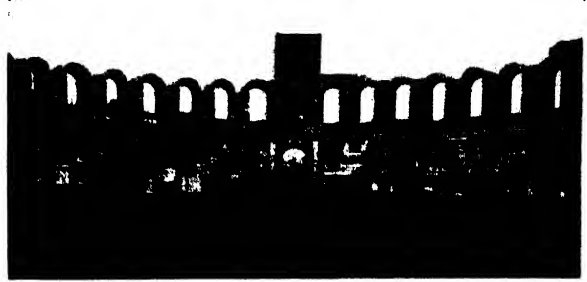
THE DECADENCE OF ROME.

The decadence of Rome was largely due to pride of conquest and the peculiar ideas engendered by it. Emperors were made gods by decree of the Senate and people, and cults of evil influence were introduced from the Eastern domains. As a consequence the feelings of the people were manifest in the grossest licence.

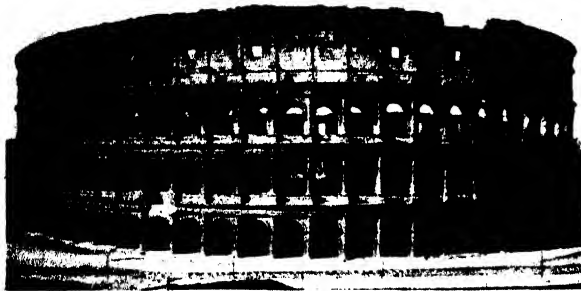
the murder there of the financial agent (*procurator*) of the emperor, and the rebels forced the governor, M. Antonius Gordianus, to become a pretender to the throne. He was a noble of high descent, now in advanced life, and took his son as colleague. The Senate gladly gave recognition, and there was slaughter in Rome of friends of Maximinus. This meant a deadly conflict between him and the Senate. The legion which garrisoned Africa remained loyal to Maximinus and the younger Gordianus was killed; his father took his own life. The Senate promptly set up a pair of new emperors, Pupienus and Balbinus, who should govern with the aid of a senatorial committee of twenty members. The response to the Senate's demand for aid was astonishing for the Italy of this age. At the outset Maximinus seemed to hold the game in his hands, but his chances ebbed away till he was killed by his own men while besieging Aquileia. A short time afterwards the Praetorians replaced the two senatorial emperors by a boy of thirteen, a third Gordianus, son of the younger of the two Gordiani who had been nominal rulers for a short space earlier in the year. This third Gordianus maintained his ground, in spite of new pretenders, for six years, and died at the hands of mutineers while in the East in 244, owing to a new



This aqueduct, 160 feet high, was built in the reign of Augustus for conveying water to Nemausus (Nîmes). There were three tiers of arches, the largest span being 75 feet.



The remains of the arena at Arles show it to have been one of the most interesting of the Roman theatres in France. Oval in form, its greatest length measured to the outer walls is 448 feet.



Foremost among the ancient amphitheatres of Italy is the Colosseum at Rome. It comprises four stories, and rises to a height of 160 feet, with an extreme length of 615 feet. It is said to have been capable of accommodating 50,000 persons.



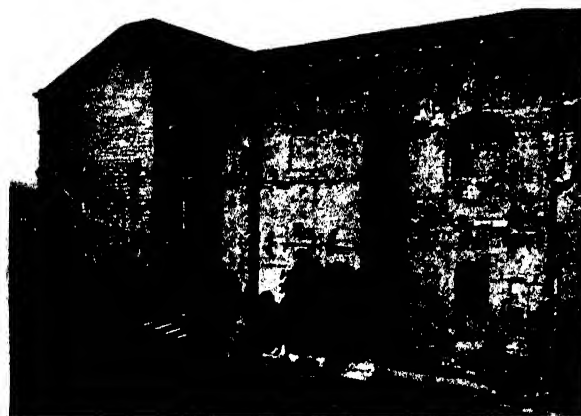
This triumphal arch at Timgad is a fine specimen of many such relics to be found in the wonderful ruined cities of ancient Rome in the department of Constantine, Algeria.



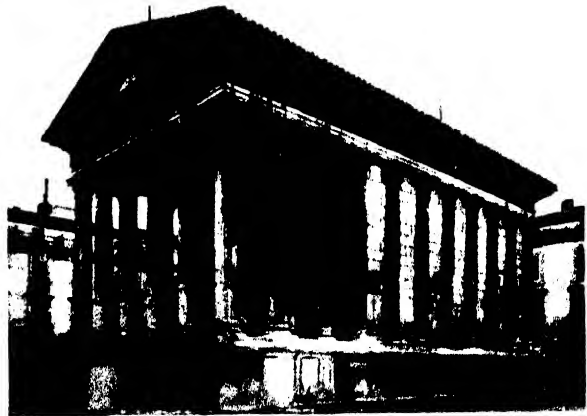
The present Pantheon (all-holy) at Rome was erected in the reign of Hadrian, and since A.D. 609 it has been the Christian church of St. Maria Rotunda.



This beautiful little relic of ancient Rome is known, though without reason, as the Temple of Vesta. It comprises twenty Corinthian columns of white marble. The roof is a modern addition.

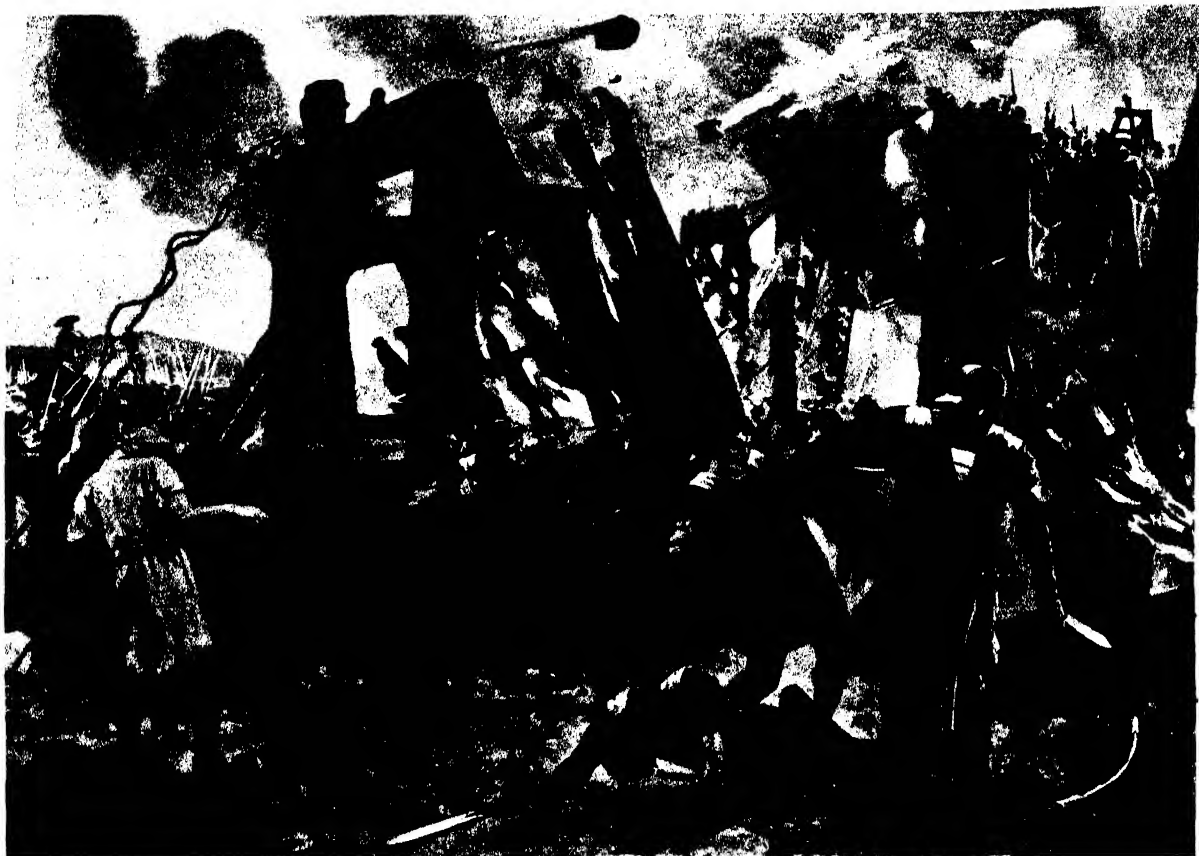


The Roman theatre at Orange in South-East France, even in its ruined condition, presents an imposing appearance. There remain a façade 121 feet high and the lower seats for the spectators.



The Maison Carrée at Nîmes in France is an ancient temple in the style of the Pantheon, finely preserved, and one of the most beautiful monuments extant of the Roman period.

From photos by Messrs. Mansell, The Photochrom Ltd., and Anderson.



Painted specially for this work

THE SIEGE OF AQUILEIA, 238 A.D.

[By J. H. Valda.]

The walls of Aquileia had fallen into serious disrepair, but the citizens, encouraged by Crispinus and Menophilus lieutenants of the Senate successfully withstood the attacks of the tyrant Maximinus, destroying his siege machines with burning pitch.

war with Persia. Philippus "The Arabian," who succeeded, made a hasty peace with Persia, and proceeded to meet the dangers that were impending in the West.

The year 238 is memorable as that in which the Goths became for the first time a real peril to the Roman Empire. In that year they made their first passage of the Danube. Often rolled back, they ever returned, and in the end contributed more than any other foes to the break-up of the empire. During the rest of the third century A.D. we find them taking to the sea and ravaging the coasts of a large part of the Mediterranean; also pouring their hordes across the Roman frontiers, penetrating the passes of the Alps and Balkans, and passing into Asia Minor. Philippus denied to the Goths the subsidies they had received from preceding monarchs. They swept over the provinces to the south of the Danube, and the legions in 248 set up a new emperor, Decius, who proceeded to attack Italy and defeated and killed Philippus in the following year. For twenty years strenuous conflicts with the Goths followed, fought within the dominions of the empire. But for the fact that Decius and most of the rulers who followed were staunch fighters, the empire must have been irretrievably shattered. The military capacity of Decius did not save him from disaster. His final defeat and death were due in part to the treachery of one of his officers, Trebonianus Gallus, who assumed the imperial authority, with the consent of the legions on the Danube, abandoned the struggle with the Goths, agreeing to pay them blackmail, and hastened to Rome (251). Two years later he perished. During this era of confusion, the whole framework of the empire was disorganized.

Decius had adopted as his assistant in the government on its civil side Valerian, who was governor of Raetia and Illyricum. The early death of Decius put an end to the arrangement. Valerian had been summoned by Trebonianus to help him against Aemilianus. When both rivals had disappeared Valerian ascended the throne and associated with himself his son Gallienus (253). The new emperor was sixty-three

years of age, a man of noble rank and high character, who strove manfully to restore unity and good administration. The times were too hard for him. To conciliate the Senate and the army at once was impossible; the fate of some immediate predecessors might have warned Valerian not to attempt it. Enemies were pressing on many frontiers. On the Danube the Goths were a perennial trouble; on the Rhine, the Alamanni and the Franks. For the first time since the age of Augustus and Mark Antony the empire was formally divided into two spheres of government. Valerian took the East, Gallienus the West. Gallienus had energy, but it was intermittent. He was, however, supported by good officers, who gained successes against the barbarians. The Alamanni caused a great panic by invading Italy; but they were defeated near Milan, and again at Aquae Sextiae (Aix-en-Provence). The Goths were checked by the future emperor Aurelian. The Franks crossed the Rhine and carried their marauding force through Gaul into Spain, which they ravaged for years. The troops in Africa also had to contend against hordes of Moors and other invaders. The attacks of the barbarians now reached the very heart of Roman civilization. The interior of the empire was without military force, and if the legions left the frontiers to pursue the foes who had slipped through between the fortresses, they only gave opportunities to fresh enemies. About the same time Scythians from Southern Russia passed into Asia Minor, not for the first time in history, and devastated its fairest provinces. The Persians also raided it from the line of the Euphrates, and some eastern districts were severed from the empire. In 260 their king Sapor made a sensational capture of the emperor Valerian. A romantic episode followed. The noble city of Palmyra had grown in wealth and strength under Roman rule, and her general Odaenathus was able to afford to the East that protection against Persia which Romans were too weak to supply. Odaenathus was recognized as a prince by Gallienus.

Amid all the miseries of barbaric invasions, the empire also suffered bitterly from internal strife. In the ten years from 260 to 270 a crowd of pretenders sprang up and disappeared. In 259 Postumus, governor of the Gaulish provinces, was made an independent ruler by his troops. They conquered Colonia Agrippinensis (Cologne), and killed there a son of Gallienus, who had been made "Augustus"—that is, partner in the imperial power. Postumus was acknowledged by Britain and Spain, and held



Painted specially for this work

[By E. A. Morrow.]

INVASION OF GOTHS INTO THRACE, A.D. 250.

The Goths, under King Cuiva, were several times repulsed by the Romans, but they pushed forward with great persistency. At Beroea they fell upon the Romans unawares, and the army under Decius was routed. The inhabitants of Philippopolis were massacred after a siege of some months, and the road into Thrace was then clear.

the left bank of the Rhine. For six years Gallienus could not attempt to take vengeance for the murder of his son, and then the operations, though considerable, were indecisive. Postumus disappeared in the customary manner by military treachery. In 268 Gallienus, who had had to face perils on the Danube, not only from the Goths, but from the legions and the mushroom emperors whom they from time to time supported, met his death at Milan, where he was besieging a new pretender. He was a victim of a military conspiracy. The soldiers condemned his memory and raised to power M. Aurelius Claudius, surnamed Gothicus, because of his success in fighting the Goths. In 268 he met a host of Marcomanni and other German tribes, who had come over the Brenner pass, and defeated them with much slaughter by the Lago di Garda. In the following year, it is said, three hundred and twenty thousand Goths and



Painted specially for this work

THE HUMILIATION OF VALERIAN.

[By Watson Charlton.]

In his captivity Valerian was spared no humiliation by his conqueror, Sapor. He was even submitted to the indignity of serving as a stepping-stone when Sapor mounted his horse. He ended his days in captivity, and after his death his body was said to have been submitted to the vilest indignities.

allied warriors passed the Danube, and spread over the lands to the south, and used ships for the attack on some places, among them Thessalonica and Cyzicus. Claudius inflicted heavy loss on a portion of them at Naissus (Nisch) on the Morawa. He was engaged in pursuing scattered detachments of the enemy at a time when both barbarians and Romans were suffering severely from pestilence, and he himself succumbed to it at Sirmium on the Danube. Claudius practically removed serious peril from the Eastern Goths (Ostrogoths) for a century. Huge numbers had perished on the battle-field or by disease. Masses of prisoners were set to till the waste lands of the Danubian region, and their flocks and herds helped to equip farms for their conquerors. Claudius was in every respect one of the very best of the emperors. He was followed by another doughty fighter, Aurelian, who had long held a prominent place among the officers of the empire; a strong man, with a greater power of maintaining military discipline than any emperor had possessed since the death of Septimius Severus. He was confronted by a fresh



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley]

THE EMBARKATION OF THE GOTHs, A.D. 269.

Three hundred thousand fighting men with their families embarked from the banks of the Dniester, their object being to raid Byzantium. The attempt failed, and they landed later at Thessalonica. In a battle inland they were crushed by Claudius.



Copyright by]

A BAS-RELIEF OF THE THIRD CENTURY A.D.

[Anderson.

The subject is a battle between Romans and barbarians. The latter are shown wearing the typical loose trousers. The work is a fine example of the later period of Roman art, and exceptional skill is seen in the treatment of the subject.

and formidable alliance of barbarians, in which the Western Goths (Visigoths) and Vandals had a principal share. After meeting them successfully in the field, Aurelian dealt with them by diplomacy. Dacia, conquered by Trajan, once flourishing, but now depressed, after thirty or forty years of incessant attacks by uncivilized foes, was made over to the Goths, and the Danube definitely became the line of separation between them and the Romans. Then Aurelian had to turn to Italy. A fresh combination of German tribes appeared in the valley of the Po, and crushed a strong Roman force, but Aurelian destroyed the barbarians near Pavia.

For the time being the safety of the frontiers to the north seemed assured. But the very existence of the ancient city of Rome, which Romans loved to call "eternal," had been repeatedly threatened in recent years. To give confidence, Aurelian began the great walls of which many portions remain to this day. His chief task was now to restore the unity of the empire. Odaenathus of Palmyra had won great fame in the East, and had been able to seize control of Egypt, nominally as representative of the Romans. He was murdered, and his widow Zenobia ruled in the name of her son. She is one of the great feminine figures of history—a woman of immense intellectual ability, great personal attractiveness and remarkable culture, being a splendid linguist and an accomplished student of Greek philosophy and Christian theology. By a fortunate stroke, a Roman officer, Probus, who afterwards became emperor, was able to win back Egypt for Aurelian. The emperor went to the East to attack the Palmyrene power, and was hailed with enthusiasm. After protracted operations and during a siege of Palmyra the queen Zenobia was captured and peace made on terms not severe. But the citizens of Palmyra rebelled; the town was stormed and a huge massacre ensued (273), a disaster from which it never recovered. Zenobia was exhibited in the emperor's triumph at Rome. Then Aurelian's fame and his vigour enabled him to put down the independent rulers who for many years had held their ground in Gaul and the West. The year 274 marks the date at which general peace and unity were attained. Parts of the West were in possession of barbarian invaders; these were all reclaimed. Aurelian merited the title given to him of "Restorer of the World." His efforts to secure internal order and to put down the innumerable abuses incidental to an era of confusion were strenuous and well conceived and partially successful. In 275 this

great emperor was in Thrace, preparing for an expedition against Persia. He was killed by officials who had reason, or thought they had reason, to expect punishment at his hands. This crime seems to have paralysed the army, and the senators were actually, for the first and only time, requested by the soldiers to appoint a new ruler. They chose one who, as they thought, would allow them to rule in his name—M. Claudius Tacitus, an old man of distinction, but lacking in what was most needed, military capacity. The pride of the Senate had a speedy fall. Their emperor went to Asia Minor to encounter a swarm of barbarians, among them Goths and Alani. They had entered the land on pretence of having been summoned by Aurelian to aid him in the campaign against Persia. It seems that Tacitus enraged the soldiers by paying a section of the barbarians to retire; and they slew him, after a reign of a few months. He was replaced by a very capable general, M. Aurelius Probus, who had been a principal helper of Aurelian, and was a worthy successor (276). The death of Aurelian excited the barbarians on the frontiers to new efforts, but their strength was broken, and they were subdued without extreme difficulty. Probus, too, was plagued by aspirants to power, especially in the western provinces, which had often, since the death of Pertinax, taken an independent course against those who were elsewhere obeyed as legitimate emperors. Probus kept the peace when he could and employed the army in road-making and other works of public utility, as had been the custom in earlier days. This policy, and perhaps what was regarded as excessive deference to the Senate, induced the legionaries to kill him at Sirmium on the Danube, at a moment when Carus, a new pretender, confronted him (282). Carus, after some successes against Persia, disappeared in the same manner. Of his two sons, to whom he had given the title Augustus, the elder, Numerianus, perished in the East by the treachery of his own father-in-law, Aper, the chief of the Praetorians (283). He found an avenger in the captain of the bodyguard, C. Aurelius Valerius Diocletianus, whom we call Diocletian. He executed Aper with his own hand, and led the eastern army to the Danube, having been declared emperor by his men. The younger son of Carus, named Carinus, advanced from the west against Diocletian, and only succumbed after a desperate contest, fought by the river Margus (Morawa). After disposing of another rival, Diocletian addressed himself to the enormous task of giving stability to the empire, and his success was greater and more permanent than



By permission of]

[Measra, Braun et Cie.

THE TOILET OF A ROYAL LADY.

The hair was composed in a tuft on the crown of the head and in a roll across the forehead. Refinements such as perfume and pomade may be seen, and perhaps Venus is invoked at the shrine behind the lady.

that of Aurelian (284). But dissensions within the empire were never quite stilled, even when the barbarian flood threatened to submerge it.

Diocletian was a native of Dalmatia and, not for the first time, Rome submitted to the rule of one whose grandfather had been in slavery. Diocletian rose to power when the army seemed to have brought the empire and its civilization to the brink of dissolution. He was able to curb the soldiery sufficiently to avert the peril and to give the imperial system a reprieve. The world of Diocletian was a world far different from that which Augustus had set in order. There had been, as we have seen, an unceasing drift towards centralization and autocracy. Diocletian was now to turn what had been a drift into a policy. Hitherto the homage paid to liberty, insincere though it might be, had never altogether vanished. Pretenders had found it to their advantage to parade as admirers of the Senate. Now the



Painted specially for this work

[By N. Prescott-Davies, R.B.A.]

AMBASSADORS OF THE ALAMANNI BEFORE AURELIAN.

In A.D. 270 Aurelian, hearing that the Alamanni had devastated the land from the Danube to the Po, quietly intercepted their retreat back to Germany and there entrapped them. He is here seen giving a hearing to the ambassadors of the barbarian army, whose conditions of peace he declined. Their army was eventually exterminated by Aurelian in a battle near Pavia, a suburb of Rome.

emperor was to be, quite patently, all in all. The Roman Senate was to sink at last into the rank of the municipal council of a city controlling a restricted area round it, and differing from other cities chiefly in its glorious history. A council composed mainly of new-fangled imperial officers would become what the Senate had been—the advisory body and auxiliary of the ruler. Law had tended more and more to derive from the emperor; it was now to derive from him solely. His infinite power could only be exercised through a vast host of subordinates; the empire was therefore covered by an enormous network of bureaucracy, ever growing more complex. The emperor was hedged round by the glamour of an orientalized court. Eunuchs and chamberlains soon played a principal part in the government.

Society was transformed by the operation of a universal system of taxation, principally based on the requisition for the treasury of a portion of the fruits of the land. The magistrates and councils of the towns had for their chief function that of guarantors to the empire of the dues imposed on the area of the civic estates. The office of municipal senator became hereditary, and even compulsory when not



By permission of the artist]

[Herbert Schmalz.

ZENOBIA'S LAST LOOK UPON PALMYRA.

Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra and the East, claimed her descent from the Macedonian kings of Egypt, and was esteemed the most lovely as well as the most heroic of her sex. Aurelian, Emperor of Rome, destroyed the proud monarchy which she had erected in the East and led her back captive to Rome. After appearing in his triumph she was presented with an elegant villa about twenty miles from the capital, where she ended her days.



Painted specially for this work]

[By H. McCormick.

PERSIAN AMBASSADORS BEFORE CARUS.

After defeating the Sarmatians, Carus marched against the Persians. Varanes, their king, was alarmed at the presence of the Roman army and sent ambassadors to seek for peace. They were brought before Carus, who told them that unless they acknowledged the supremacy of Rome their country would be as naked of trees as his head was destitute of hairs.

inherited, for the emperor must have a hold on the local men of property, in order that his revenue might be assured. The tillers of the soil must also be bound to it as serfs (*coloni*) lest land should produce nothing for the exchequer. The social grades tended to be rigidly fixed, and severe laws punished those who (in the words of an imperial enactment) "were unwilling to be what they were born to be." Nevertheless, the local senators and the *coloni* dwindled in number. The stream of voluntary gifts which had distinguished the municipalities in the earlier days dried up rapidly after the age of the Severi. Literature and the arts went backwards. Corruption and oppression grew apace, even under emperors of good intent.

Diocletian was of sturdy, upright character, with a talent for organization and for the government of men. For the first time since the days of Augustus, a new scheme of administration was constructed, based not, like that of Augustus, on a pretended love for ancient forms, but on frank autocracy. The plan recognized the gulf which separated the eastern side of the empire from the western. Each division was to be placed under an "Augustus," but the two equally authorized emperors were to act in harmony, and all orders were to run in both names. Of course, two parallel staffs of officers were needed. Each "Augustus" was to have under him a "Caesar," as his assistant and destined successor. When an "Augustus" died, the survivor would appoint a new "Caesar." In this way the succession to the throne would be steadied and military revolutions obviated. The old provinces were greatly subdivided, so that it would be less easy for a commander to assert a claim to be emperor. Military command was divorced from civil authority. A new mobile army, composed of troops which were nominally "household" regiments, was created, in order to avoid the hazard of leaving frontiers unprotected by the removal of legions in time of war. Finance was thoroughly reorganized, and steps were taken to remedy the long-borne gigantic mischief of a depreciated currency. A great evidence of Diocletian's passion for regulation is his celebrated edict fixing the prices at which commodities were to be sold in every part of his dominions.

In 286 the new emperor adopted as his colleague Maximianus (Maximian). He reserved the East as his special sphere, leaving to Maximian the West. To give a touch of super-humanity to their office,

he took the title Jovius to himself and gave to Maximian that of Herculus. In 293 Galerius was appointed Caesar under Diocletian and Constantius Chlorus under Maximian, the former to supervise Illyricum, the Danubian provinces, Macedonia, Greece and Crete; the latter to look after Gaul and Britain. Each of the Caesars was connected with his Augustus by marriage and by formal adoption. Both were able officers, but of very different fibre. Galerius had been an Illyrian shepherd, and retained the roughness of his origin. Constantius, also an Illyrian, was of noble birth and a man of culture. Fighting on the frontiers went on almost without intermission, but under the new *régime* was not so fraught with peril as before. Year after year the barbarians were crushed, we are told, with much slaughter. Some formidable tribes were exterminated. Yet fresh swarms were always ready for the attack. The scheme of defence was thoroughly revised; old fortresses were strengthened and new bulwarks created. Following the precedents set by Agrippa, Marcus Aurelius and others, great masses of barbarians, especially Germans, were settled within the empire on lands left desolate by the general decline of well-being, which they held on condition of military service. Thus a large body of Franks was planted in northern and eastern Gaul; there were also great settlements in the Danubian provinces, Italy and elsewhere. The Roman army had been recruited from barbaric races for many generations, but service had then been a Romanizing agency. Now the barbarians, and especially the Germans, were to barbarize the army. In the latter half of the fourth century the Germans became the predominant element, and the safety of the empire often depended on a German commander-in-chief. While the barbarians dragged down the culture of the empire which they penetrated and served, they entertained a pathetic admiration for the civilization which they could not themselves acquire.

The new "Tetrarchy," as we may call the four great officers of state under the scheme of Diocletian, had to crush some menacing pretenders. The most serious conflict was with Carausius, originally commander of a fleet charged with the duty of protecting the coasts of Gaul and Britain against attacks of pirates. In the East, Diocletian was able to annex again some districts which his predecessors had lost. He seems to have merited the triumph which he celebrated in 302, for peace between the great Eastern and Western empires was not broken for fifty years.



Painted specially for this work]

[By A. E. Morrow.

PROBUS ENTERS GAUL. A.D. 277.

The Germans had made use of the interval after Aurelian's death to overrun Gaul, and when Probus arrived there he found them occupying many cities. But the Roman army was well equipped, and the Germans received severe checks. They were finally driven back across the Rhine with enormous losses, and their chiefs were forced to seek for peace in person from Probus.

It was at this period that Christianity first exercised a powerful influence on Roman politics. There had been conflicts between Christians and the empire from Nero's time onwards, but they had been intermittent and local rather than general. The exclusiveness of the Christian creed, as compared with the pagan beliefs, sometimes placed a man's duty as a Christian at variance with his duty as a citizen, in cases where he might be required to recognize the gods of the state. On the whole, rulers had been anxious to avoid the strife. The celebrated letters of Pliny to Trajan about the Christians of Bithynia in the early years of the second century are an indication, among many, of this fact. Christians became more numerous in public life, doubtless by connivance of the authorities. The pious tradition of the Church exaggerated greatly the extent of the persecutions. The most serious had occurred in the short reign of Decius. About 297 Diocletian declared war on the faith that was threatening to permeate the



Painted specially for this work

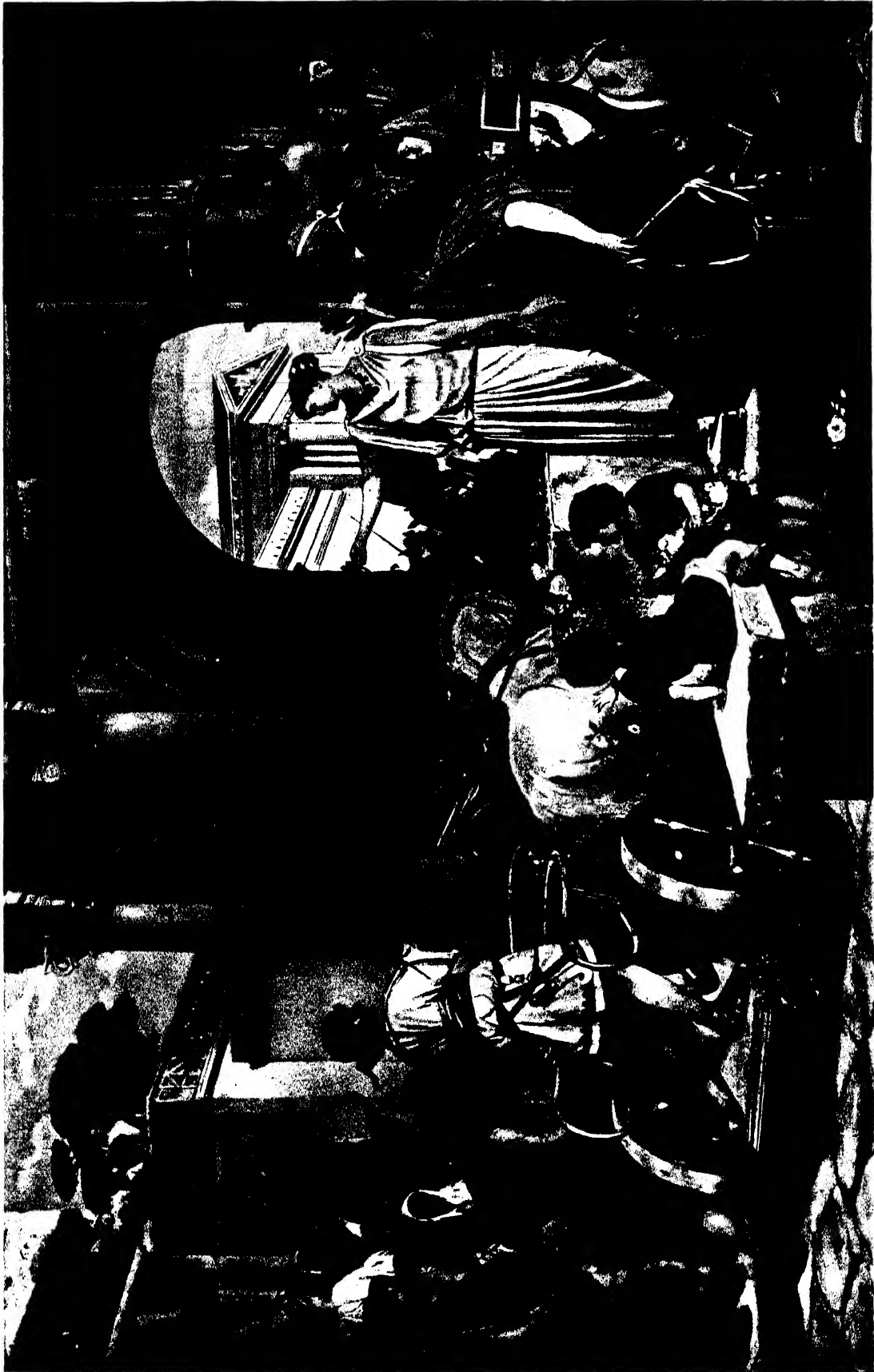
[By N. Prescott-Davies, R.B.A.]

DIOCLETIAN BURNING BOOKS OF ALCHEMY (c. 290 A.D.).

In the sense implied here alchemy was the science of changing baser metals into real gold and silver. There are many legends concerning its origin, which was probably very early. It was the Greeks who practised the art in Diocletian's time, and the reason for his raid is obvious. He feared lest the people of Egypt, by their wealth and through the might of their own knowledge, should be inspired to break from the empire.

empire, though as yet it could claim as adherents but a fraction of the whole population. Christians were declared incapable of public service, and the officials of the churches were harassed and their property assailed. There were many martyrs, whose sufferings caused armed revolt in several places. These measures were far more severely carried out on the eastern side of the empire by Diocletian and Galerius than by Maximian and Constantius in the West.

In 305, Diocletian, being sick, resigned his authority at Nicomedia in Bithynia, which had been his real capital, and retired to that magnificent palace which he built at his native town, Salona (Spalato), on the Dalmatian coast. Splendid remains of it still exist. At the same time Maximian resigned in Milan, which was now rapidly becoming an imperial city. The two "Caesars," Galerius and Constantius, now took rank as "Augusti"; and Diocletian appointed two new "Caesars," Maximinus Daia, a nephew of Galerius, for the East, and Flavius Valerius Severus for the West. The change passed off peaceably, but trouble was at hand. A year or so after the abdication of Diocletian



By permission of]

THE CHARIOTEER.

A professional charioteer is represented driving through Rome. The chariot is Greek in type, being drawn by two horses. Owing to rough use, there were no springs for the body, which rested on the axle, and the charioteer stood on the floor of the body, and at his front there was a semicircular guard. The chariot was connected with the horses by a strong pole, to which was attached the yoke. The picture evidently represents a victorious charioteer, as the chariot is festooned. A lady, too, holds out a laurel crown for his acceptance.

[The B.P.C. Ltd., London.

Constantius died, like Septimius Severus, at York. The soldiers there declared his son Constantine, whom we call Constantine, to be his successor. Here was the evil once more that the old emperor had thought to exorcize. Constantine was son of Constantius and Helena, but his parents were perhaps never really wedded. He had resided long at the eastern court. Anxious to escape civil war, Galerius temporized, and in the meantime Constantine strengthened his position in Gaul and Britain. Then came a fresh revolution at Rome, where the Senate and the Praetorians designated as "Caesar," Maxentius, the son of Maximian, who had married a daughter of Galerius. Maxentius was a man of poor natural quality, but a favourite with the soldiers in Italy. An attempt by Severus, the legitimate "Augustus" of the West, to suppress Maxentius failed, and he lost his life. Galerius also marched to Italy, but felt too weak to attack Rome, and so called from his retirement Diocletian, to set right the time that had got out of joint. The result was that a new "Augustus," Licinius, was nominated for the West. But Maximian proved disloyal. Proceeding to Gaul, he wedded his daughter to Constantine, and after some intricate plotting, declared himself "Augustus" in the sphere of Constantine, but was betrayed by his followers, and died by his own hand (310). About this time Constantine won great victories on the frontier against German tribes, and took up his residence at the city of Treviri (Treves). It had been almost ruined in the strife, but was now rebuilt and adorned by noble buildings, of which some splendid relics are still preserved. A fresh complication followed; Maximinus Daia assumed the honours of an "Augustus." In 311 Galerius, surrounded by embarrassments, died. One of his last acts was to withdraw his enactment against the Christians. The empire was once more dismembered, and a struggle followed between the rivals for its control.

Constantine leagued himself with Licinius, to whom he betrothed his half-sister Constantia. While he was to dispose of Maxentius, Licinius was to get rid of Maximinus Daia. The support given to Maxentius, which was surprisingly strong, in spite of his tyrannical conduct, was largely due to the



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

CARAUSIUS SEIZES THE FLEET AT BOULOGNE.

Carausius, to whom had been entrusted the command of the Roman naval station of Boulogne, bribed the fleet of which he was given the command, and openly asserted his independence of Rome. This was acknowledged after a Roman defeat by him, but he was eventually murdered by his first minister.



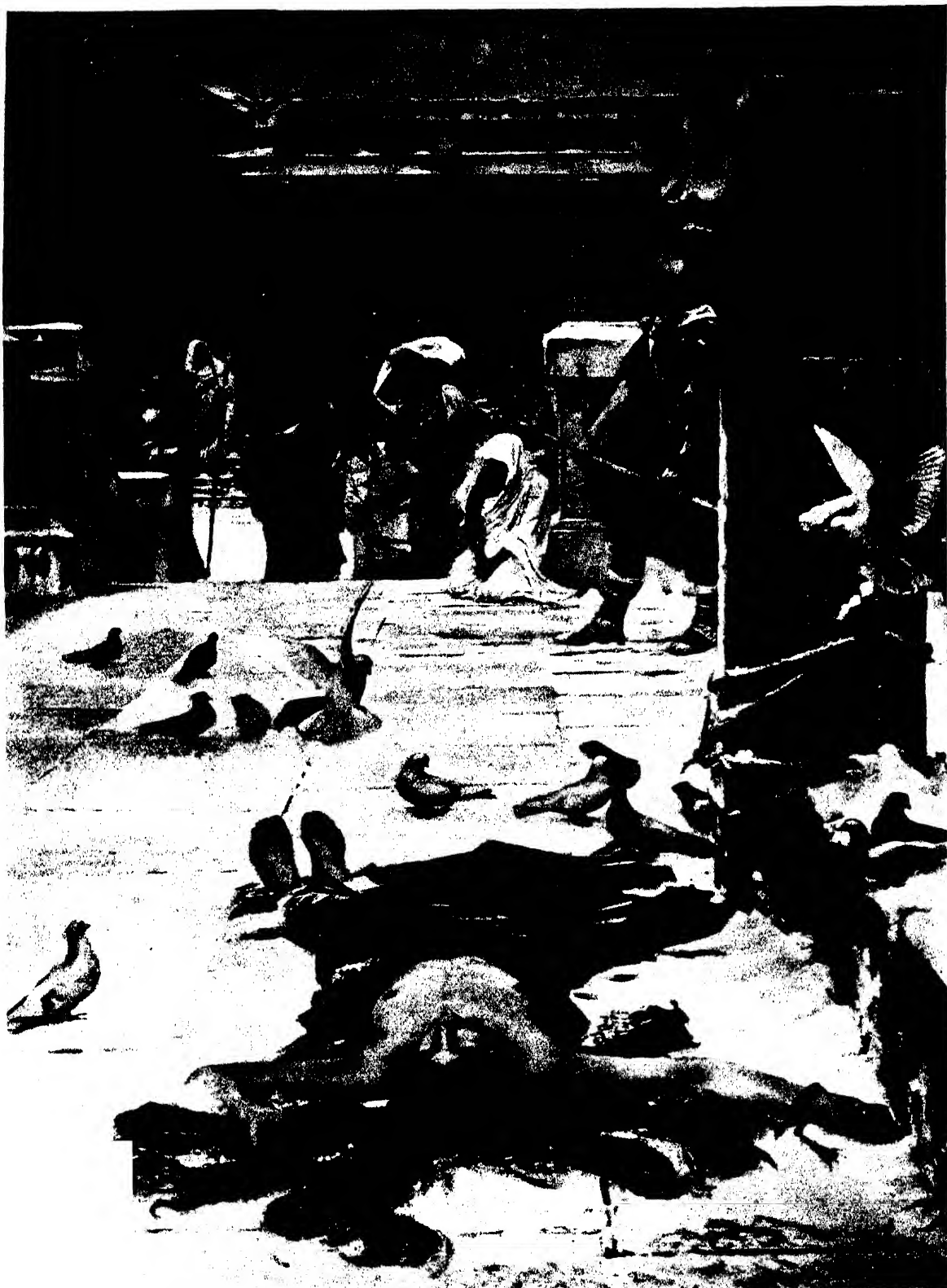
Painted by Jules Zenepren.]

CHRISTIAN MARTYRS IN THE CATACOMBS.

The catacombs of the first Christians were probably not more than mere caves, to which the Christians went for undisturbed worship in times of persecution. The scene represents a later date, when tombs had been hewn out of the rock. The last rites are being performed over the bodies of two Christians, possibly victims of persecution.

resistance of Italy to the new system of taxation, which swept away the last remnants of its old privileged position in the empire. After a severe contest, in which Christian sympathy was with Constantine, Italian pride succumbed at the great battle of the Milvian bridge near Rome in 312, when Maxentius fell. Africa and Spain had acted with Maxentius, but now yielded to the conqueror. Constantine, after a short stay in Rome, which he treated with moderation, met Licinius at Milan in the winter between 312 and 313. About this time Diocletian died, having held aloof from recent movements. Maximinus Daia was a rough and passionate man, a devotee of the heathen faith, who started afresh the persecution of Christians which Galerius had stayed. It was a natural result of the political situation that in 313 Constantine and Licinius issued at Milan the famous edict of toleration for Christianity. After having dallied for a while, Maximinus made a dash for the Danube regions, and attacked Licinius, not far from Adrianople, with a force more than double that of his enemy. But he was beaten, and chased into Asia Minor, where he died. Licinius carried out a series of cruel executions, removing persons of imperial family, with many high officials. All connected with the two original "Augusti" of Diocletian's constitution were now dead. It only remained for Constantine and Licinius to seek the arbitrament of war. After great but not entirely decisive battles in Thrace, the two made peace, Licinius resigning all territory in Europe excepting Thrace and some regions adjoining it. Constantine declared his two sons, Crispus and Constantinus, his successors; while Licinius appointed his son of the same name as heir-apparent. Six years' peace only served as preparation for a gigantic struggle, in which, roughly speaking, the whole forces of the West were marshalled against those of the East, as at Pharsalus, Philippi and Actium three and a half centuries earlier. In 323 war broke out and was waged both on land and on sea. Constantine won decisive victories, both naval and military, and in 324 overcame the enemy's last efforts in Asia Minor.

The ancient world was once more under a single ruler. But the very moment of victory was clouded by crime. Constantine, who before had seen in mercy the best policy, now went the way of Licinius, or rather surpassed him; for his wrath fell not only on Licinius, whom ~~he~~ he had sworn to spare, but on his own son Crispus, who had done him splendid service, not only against Licinius, but against barbaric foes, on his wife Fausta, and on some of his chief friends. These crimes are among the deepest mysteries of history.



as usual by J. M. Waterhouse,]

THE MARTYRDOM OF ST. EULALIA.

It is said of St. Eulalia that after her martyrdom in the Forum at Rome her body lay shrouded by a miraculous fall of snow. The formalities and place of her execution would appear to have been unusual, but it was probably intended to impart the greater shame by them. The Forum, in everyday life, was a meeting-place for business men and civic authorities. But the fact that Eulalia was put to death here would give her execution special prominence. The cross, too, was a symbol of shame, upon which the commonest malefactor suffered.

One result of recent events was the "conversion" of Constantine to Christianity, symbolized by his adoption of the famous "Labarum" as his favourite device on standards and coins. Just after Constantine's death in 337, and a quarter of a century after the battle of the Milvian bridge, the historian Eusebius revealed to an ignorant world the carefully kept secret that Constantine had been inspired in his attack on Maxentius by a vision in the sky of a cross with the legend, "By this sign shalt thou conquer" (*In hoc signo vinces*), and on another occasion by the apparition of Christ Himself. At first Constantine tolerated paganism where it was strong, but gradually in his and succeeding reigns persecution fell more and more mercilessly, not on pagans alone, but on those portions of the Christian world with which the emperor for the time being chanced to be in disagreement about belief. Definitions of dogma became the equivalents of declarations of war, and divisions among those who all professed to know the mind of Christ produced the dire effects of secular quarrels. The extraordinary spectacle was presented at the Council of Nicaea (Nice) of an unbaptized ruler, who was not even a "catechumen," determining by his influence decisions about the faith. Ecclesiastics now became the most potent among politicians. It is the misfortune of the historian of politics to see mainly the bad results of the official recognition of Christianity. The developments cannot here be pursued in detail. We can only observe that disputes like those between the followers of Arius and those of Athanasius shook the ancient world from its centre to its circumference, and have left deep scores on the society of to-day in some lands. It may be noted that whereas the educated class in the time of Julius Caesar was sceptical through and through, it gradually passed into religious belief in the second century. Philosophy also, Stoicism and the Neoplatonic school became more and more religious; and there was a marked drift in paganism towards monotheistic views. New cults spread from east to west, some of which, like that of Mithra, were for a time serious rivals of the Christian creed.

For twelve years after he attained sole power, Constantine ruled a world on the whole peaceful and enjoying a recovery from the disasters of the antecedent time. He was aided by internal dissensions among the barbarians. He developed the constitution of Diocletian, so that it is often difficult to distinguish the work of the two. He also settled huge numbers of barbarians within the empire. His great achievement of the later period was the establishment in 330 of Constantinople (the older Byzantium) as the capital of the empire. It had long been obvious that the day of Rome as an imperial city was over. Recent rulers had resided in it but little. From the imperial point of view, it had already become of less importance than Nicomedia in Bithynia, or Milan, or Treves, or even Sirmium on the



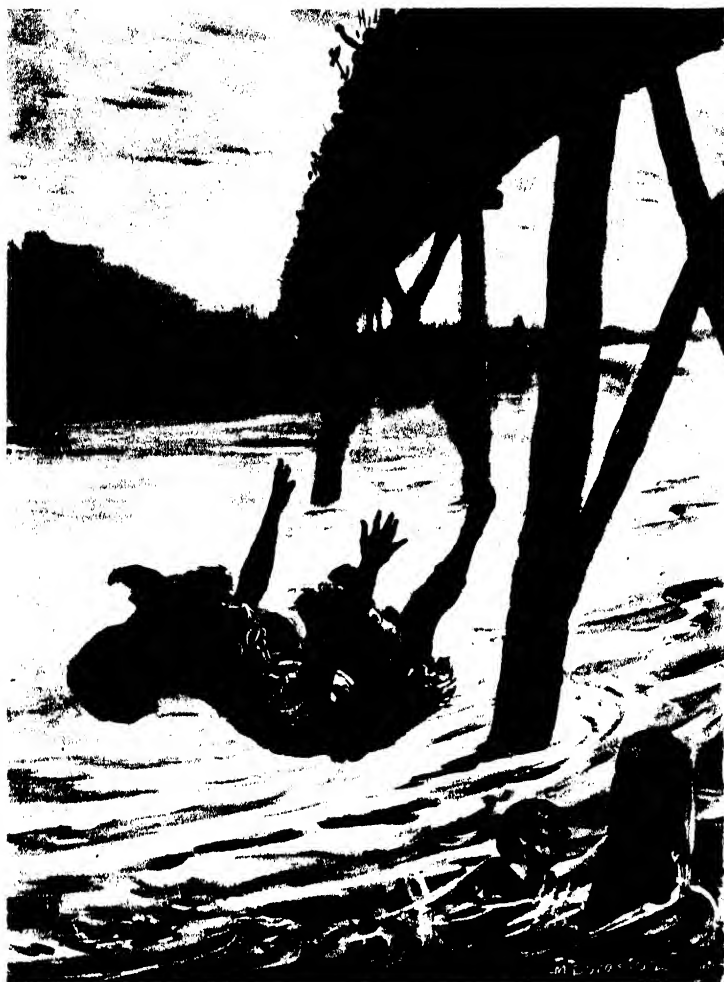
[Painted by Slingsmeier.]

A CHRISTIAN MARTYR OF DIOCLETIAN'S REIGN.

The scene is a chamber of the Roman amphitheatre. A door has just been thrown open by an attendant, who appears to find a Christian transfigured in his sleep. The amphitheatre can be seen crowded with spectators, and on the right a lion paws impatiently at an opening in the wall.

Danube. Byzantium had, from its unique position, been one of the great cities of history ; its choice by Constantine as his capital profoundly influenced the destiny of Europe and Asia. It was called "the new Rome." Constantine died at Nicomedia in 337, having received baptism just before death. In him an undoubtedly great emperor passed away.

Constantine's three sons, Constantine, Constantius and Constans, shared the Roman world between them, but as colleagues, not as separated governors. A great crime signalized their accession. Most of



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE DEFEAT OF MAXENTIUS AT THE MILVIAN BRIDGE, A.D. 312.

The defeat of Maxentius by Constantine at Saxa Rubra crushed for ever the aspirations of the tyrant. His army fled in confusion across the Milvian bridge, and in the flight Maxentius and many others were pushed into the Tiber. By the weight of his armour Maxentius was drowned. The day following his head was shown to the people of Rome, and Constantine was hailed as their deliverer.

most desperate battles of the Roman annals, at Mursa (now Eszek). Constantius won, and his rival escaped to Aquileia, but on all sides support fell away from him and he made for Gaul. He died by his own hand nearly two years after the battle of Mursa. The prestige of the house of Constantine was still a powerful weapon against pretenders.

Constans left no children and Constantius had no heir. Only two young men of his house remained, the brothers Gallus and Julianus (Julian), nephews of the great Constantine. Gallus, who had lived in exile, was nominated "Caesar," and wedded to the emperor's sister before the fall of Magnentius. Unfortunately Gallus, who was to rule the eastern portion of the empire, was rough, passionate

the other male members of the house of Constantine the Great, excepting the future emperor Julian and his brother Gallus, were murdered by the soldiers, perhaps at the instance of Constantius. Constantine II., ruler of the western provinces, attacked Constans, but was defeated and killed by him near Aquileia in 340, so that Constans ruled the whole West. Constantius II., in the East, was long occupied by a Persian war. In 350 he received the news that Constans had been forced to suicide by conspirators, who put in his place a high officer of German birth, named Magnentius. The calamity illustrates the perils that were menacing, because the Germans in Roman service could not be denationalized.

Unlike his father, Constantius was from the first a whole-hearted adherent of Christianity, but inclined to its Arian form. He was also a devotee of autocracy, surrounded by stiff courtly ceremonial. His real desire for good government was not matched by capacities which would have helped him to control the ever-increasing hordes of rapacious officials. Constantius had to face not only Magnentius, but other aspirants to the throne. Magnentius, who utilized anti-Arian feeling to some extent, raised a huge host of Gauls and Germans, and penetrated to the Danube. In September, 351, was fought one of the



Painted specially for this work

by J. H. Valda

THE PROCLAMATION OF THE EDICT OF MILAN, A.D. 313.

Soon after Constantine had freed Italy from the ravages of leaders who were contending in warfare for personal aggrandisement, he caused a declaration to be made to the people. By the Edict of Milan, civil and religious liberty was granted to the Christians, as they had been deprived of all rights. But whilst everyone was free to follow his own beliefs, Constantine lost no opportunity in exhorting all to embrace Christianity. He had his own assurances of the truth of it, and it was his belief that an Empire confirmed in the practice of Christianity would dominate all others.

and cruel, and unfit for the high office. The turbulence evoked by him caused Constantius to dispatch two of the greatest state officials to bring him to court; but they were foully murdered. He was lured at length to Pola in Istria, where Eusebius, the chief chamberlain, with two assessors, tried him in form; and he was executed (354). This brought the celebrated Julian to the front. He had been severely educated as a Christian, and his temperament prepared him in consequence to embrace the culture of Greek philosophy, with a view to restoring the deposed pagan gods. He had been an ardent student, and at Athens had had for contemporaries two men who became great Christian leaders, Gregory of Nazianzus and Basil the Great. His dread of sharing his brother's fate was dispelled by the empress Eusebia, who induced her husband to bring Julian to court at Milan (355). Just at this time



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Docton, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

CONSTANTINE LYING IN STATE

Constantine's claim to greatness lies rather in practical affairs. The circumstances of his birth were probably against intellectual and moral developments, as he was an illegitimate son of Constantius I. The supreme event of his life was his conversion to Christianity, but his later days were degenerate. He was buried in the Church of the Apostles at Constantinople.

there had been much fighting on the German frontier, conducted on the Roman side mainly by German commandants. These made a dangerous plot to destroy Constantius, but it was discovered. Thereupon Julian was presented to the army as "Caesar," and married the emperor's sister Helena. The work of Diocletian in strengthening the frontier defences was now crumbling to pieces, and barbarians were again often pouring through the gaps between the fortresses. Julian, an untried man, was sent to meet the dangers on the Rhine as nominal commandant, with no personal prestige to curb his intriguing subordinates, and no honest support from the emperor. In these difficult and even hazardous circumstances Julian showed marked soldierly qualities and had a wonderful success. In five years he altered the whole face of affairs in the West. Meanwhile Constantius was fully employed on the Danube, and in a conflict with Persia. While he was in Asia, troops in Gaul tumultuously proclaimed Julian "Augustus," because Constantius ordered a portion of them to set out for the Persian war (360). In November, 361, Constantius



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE DEATH OF GEORGE OF CAPPADOCIA.

The life of George of Cappadocia was a career of veranility. He followed for some time the business of army-contractor and tax-gatherer. But his ability in religious controversy raised him to the position of Archbishop of Alexandria. Five years later a mob, incensed by his tyranny, broke into the prison where he lay awaiting trial and tore him to pieces.

died of a fever in Cilicia. Thus a fight for the throne, which was about to break out, with doubtful prospects for Julian, was avoided, and he was recognized without difficulty as emperor.

For the second time a devoted student of philosophy ruled the ancient world. Like Marcus Aurelius, Julian was steeped in ideas that were Greek rather than Roman. The older emperor favoured Stoicism, the younger the Neoplatonic system, much in vogue in his time. But, with many merits, Julian was a smaller man than his predecessor. He carried simplicity of life to the point of a monkish affectation. His talents were not equal to the execution of his numerous benevolent schemes for the mending of the world; yet his short tenure of power entitles him to high praise. The worst aspects of him were connected with his restoration of paganism. Of the many salutary reforms projected by Julian, some were carried out. The court was cleared of intriguers and its orientalism banished. Financial burdens were much relieved and many grievances redressed. On the whole, the world had reason to mourn when, in the middle of June, 363, Julian met a soldier's death in a war with Persia.

Julian's demise ushered in an evil time. Jovian, chosen by the army, concluded a thirty years' truce with Persia, by which much Roman territory was abandoned. Early in 364 he was found dead, possibly by the hand of one anxious to avenge what was deemed to be Rome's disgrace. The soldiers replaced him by Valentinian, son of a man who had risen from the ranks to high command, and Valentinian associated with himself as "Augustus" his brother Valens, who took charge of the eastern section of the empire. Here paganism was to make a despairing effort, under the leadership of Procopius, a relative of the house of Constantine, who was aided by contingents of Goths. After a chequered career, he was defeated and executed in May, 366.

Both rulers distinguished themselves on the whole by their moderation in dealing with the pagans and with the Christian factions. Valentinian endeavoured to check the extraordinary increase of the monks, as detrimental to the Church and the realm alike. The claim of the head of the Roman Christian community to ascendancy began to be troublesome to the monarch. In Rome itself internal dissensions were constant; the election of Damasus as bishop, in 368, was accompanied by much fighting and loss of life. The two imperial brothers were at one in their earnest strivings after reform, and in their anxiety to stay the empire's now rapid decay. The settlement of Germans (Alamanni) in the valley of the Po, and of the Visigoths in Thrace, were intended to meet the need for repeopleing wasted lands; but the

remedy was worse than the disease. The restlessness of the barbarians and their pressure to settle within the Roman dominions as enemies, if they could not do so as friends, became greater than ever. The misery affected almost every region in the length and breadth of the empire.

Valentinian died in 375, leaving a son, Gratian, now sixteen years old, to succeed him. But the German influence in the army joined him with a four-year-old brother, afterwards known as Valentinian II. After struggling with difficulties in Asia, Valens was overwhelmed in a most disastrous battle in 378, near Adrianople, when a great Roman army was cut down by barbarians almost to the last man. Gratian wisely chose as partner in the government the able general, of Spanish origin, whom we know as Theodosius the Great. If anyone could stem the tide of invading and triumphant barbarians, it would be this man. The formal suppression of heathenism was the work of these two rulers. Theodosius took command on the eastern side. In 383 Gratian, while engaged against the German invaders, was killed by one of his generals, acting in the interest of a strong pretender in the West, Magnus Maximus. Strife between Christian factions entered as usual into the contest. Finally, after huge operations, Maximus was suppressed by Theodosius (388), who remained in Italy several years, to set Western affairs in order, so far as might be. In 391 he left the charge of the West to Valentinian, with the aid of a Frankish general, Arbogastes, who after a brief space killed his chief and set up as emperor a certain Eugenius, a former teacher of rhetoric. A colossal battle took place in 394, near the eastern frontier of Italy. On both sides the forces consisted largely of barbarians. Arbogastes commanded for Eugenius. On the part of Theodosius a large body of Goths fought, and one of his principal officers was the celebrated Stilicho. A subordinate commander was Alaric, destined to be the destroyer of Rome. Eugenius was utterly defeated and met his death. In the early days of the year 395 Theodosius died at Milan, leaving behind him his young son Honorius as "Augustus," and Stilicho as the greatest of his servants. With Theodosius died the empire, as hitherto known. As Gibbon says: "The genius of Rome expired with Theodosius." His fame served to secure the quiet succession of his two young sons Arcadius and Honorius as emperors respectively of the East and of the West. Arcadius was but eighteen years of age, Honorius eleven. The administration of affairs was now actually divided into two spheres, for unfriendly relations between the two rulers aggravated the calamities of the empire. The former co-operation between joint emperors was gone.



From the painting]

[By Rubens.

AMBROSE REFUSES THEodosius ADMISSION TO CHURCH.

Ambrose, horrified by the massacre at Thessalonica, resolved that Theodosius should not be admitted to church except after severe penance. When Theodosius, therefore, arrived at the Cathedral of Milan, Ambrose refused him entry. "You have imitated David in his crime: imitate, then, his repentance," he enjoined, when Theodosius made excuse that David had been guilty of adultery as well as murder.

The most prominent figure in the period between the death of Theodosius and the sack of Rome by Alaric, in 410, is that of Stilicho, the great hero of Claudian's poetry. He seems to have been a Vandal by birth, and rose to be the commander-in-chief of the forces of the Western Empire and the husband of Serena, niece of the great Theodosius. His personality was imposing, his character upright, and his control of the army strong. The great minister of the East had been Rufinus, who is the leading villain of Claudian's poetry, as Stilicho is the hero. Though chosen by Theodosius, his influence for years was baneful, but his fall in 396, procured by Stilicho, led to the dominance of the eunuch Eutropius, whose rule was little better. At Constantinople there was incessant intrigue directed against the power and even the life of Stilicho. But he bated not heart or hope, and for some years steadied the tottering state. On the death of Theodosius the Visigoths, under their great king Alaric, stung, it is said, by the reduction of the subsidies they were wont to receive from the imperial exchequer, swept over Greece like a destructive tornado. Stilicho landed a force which nearly captured Alaric, but he escaped to the north, and was soon made by Arcadius captain of the troops in the province of Illyricum. This kept him quiet for a time. In 401 he took the road to Italy and besieged the imperial residence of Milan, which was

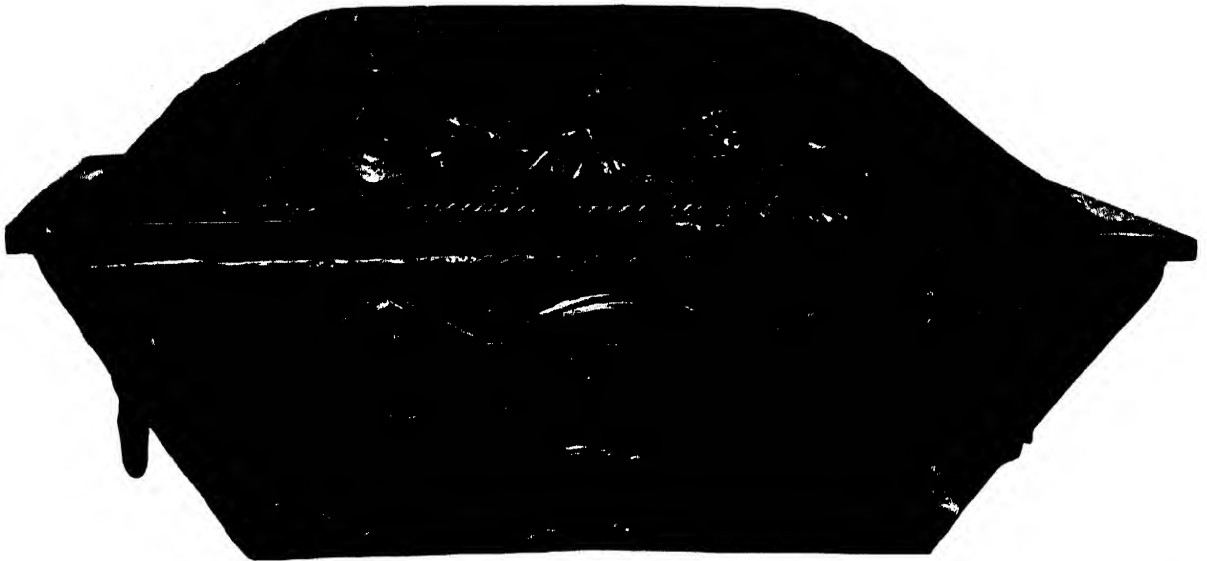


Photo by]

A BRIDAL CASKET WITH RELIEFS.

[Mansell & Co.

This casket, which formed part of the wedding-gift of Secundus and Projecta, was found on the Esquiline Hill at Rome in 1793. It dates from about 400 A.D., and bears Christian inscriptions, but the designs are still those of the old pagan art. The casket was wrought in silver.

relieved by Stilicho. On Easter Day, in 402, the Goths suffered a great defeat at Pollentia (Pollenza), to the south-east of Turin. They lost the rich spoils of Greece and many prisoners, among them the wife of Alaric. The Gothic king accepted a proposal of peace, which was gilded with bribes. Yet a year later he was in Italy again, and suffered defeat near Verona. Two years later Italy was attacked by a host vaster than any that had come against it since the days of the Cimbri and Teutoni. It was composed of Vandals, Suevians, Burgundians, and some Goths, under Radagaisus, and the fighting men are said to have numbered two hundred thousand. In addition there were women, children and slaves. Stilicho mustered against them an army chiefly made up of barbarians—Alani, Huns and Goths. By what Augustine acclaimed as a divine miracle, the vast horde of invaders was almost utterly destroyed near Florence (406). Alaric now had a fresh opportunity. The only way to keep him from Italy would have been to employ him against enemies who were overrunning other parts of the West. Britain, Gaul and Spain were in the power of a pretender named Constantine. In 408 there was a great discussion about some demands made by Alaric upon Honorius. The party of resistance to the death, regardless of the Roman weakness, overcame Stilicho, who was disgraced and killed. Alaric marched upon Rome, subjected it to famine, but was induced by the Senate, on promise of great sums, to retire. Honorius, in his court at Ravenna, was, however, swayed by uncompromising counsels, and no composition was



Photo by

ROME INVADIED BY GOTH.

The death of Theodosius broke up the union of the Romans with the Goths of the West, and the latter threw off their allegiance to Rome, choosing Alaric, a Goth, for their king. A barbarian invasion from the East united East and West Goths once more, and the way for a general invasion of Italy lay open. The fortune of war favoured first Romans and then Goths. But the latter ultimately reached Rome, and the city was sacked by Alaric. The scene is evidently the first onslaught of the Goths upon Rome.

[J. Laurent y Co

possible with Alaric, who had great difficulty in supporting his army in a ravaged land. His great desire was for some imperial office which would enable him to feed his men. In 409 he marched again on Rome and blockaded it. This time he set up a new emperor, Attalus, in whose interest he campaigned against Honorius. But this puppet was soon dethroned, and Alaric made his third march on Rome, which was reduced to the direst extremity of famine—even, it is said, to cannibalism. On the 14th of August, 410, the gates were secretly opened. Plunder and all forms of barbarity were rife for days; but Alaric was compelled by want of means of subsistence to withdraw his force, and soon after died at Consentia in southern Italy.

The sack of Rome produced a reverberation throughout the world. Pagans accounted for it by the



Painted specially for this work

GOTHS IN ROME.

[By Herbert Gaudy.]

When treating with the Goths the Romans informed them in language far above their abject position that they would only accept an honourable capitulation. If refused this, they would give battle with an innumerable host of people. "The thicker the hay, the easier it is mowed," was Alaric's terse comment. Goths are seen, surrounded by slaves, drinking wine at some country villa in the shade of the plane trees.

flouting of the ancient gods. We still possess a history of Rome, written by Orosius at the instigation of Augustine, to prove that disasters as great had befallen the Romans when their gods were believed to protect them. Then, or soon after, all the lands of the West passed into the possession of barbarian conquerors, whose followers were unable to assimilate entirely the civilization they found in the lands that they overcame. These results were only the fulfilment of dangers which had begun to threaten the Roman polity in the fourth century B.C., when the city was taken by the Gauls. The peril had been impending ever since. Warded off by Marius, by Caesar and by Augustus, and, later, by Diocletian and Theodosius, it might have again passed away but for the exhaustion produced by centuries of strife among the Romans themselves. The cause of civilization was now lost in the West; for some centuries more it survived in the East.

DATES OF THE LATER ROMAN EMPIRE

RULERS. (Those of the West are shown in italics.)	YEAR (Christian Era).	EVENTS.
Arcadius. <i>Honorius.</i>	395	Barbarian invasions. Checked by Stilicho, but Rhine forced in 406. Attempted barbarian dominance in East frustrated by defeat of Gainas. Era of St. John "Chrysostom."
Theodosius II. Co-regent Empress Pulcheria.	408	Death of Stilicho. Anthemius begins to reorganize East. 410. Sack of Rome by Alani. Barbarians spread over West.
<i>Constantius III. (co-regent).</i>	421	Successful war with Persia. 423. Death of Honorius. Theodosius II. interferes in favour of Valentinian
<i>Valentinianus III. Regent Empress Galla Placidia.</i>	425	FOUNDATION OF UNIVERSITY OF CONSTANTINOPLE. 429. The Vandals invade Africa. 431. Third General Council of the Church at Ephesus. 433. The Patrician Aetius upholds the Empire in West until 454. 438. PROMULGATION OF THE THEODOSIAN CODE. 439. Vandals under Gaiseric take Carthage. 441-450. Attila and the Huns ravage in East and West.
Marianus (co-regent until 451, Empress Pulcheria.)	450	AETIUS AND THEODORIC THE VISIGOTH DEFEAT ATTILA ON THE MAURIAC PLAIN ("BATTLE OF CHALONS"). 451. Fourth General Council of the Church at Chalcedon. 452. Attila in Italy, repulsed by Aetius. Peace concluded by efforts of Pope Leo the Great. 453. Death of Attila. Death of Pulcheria. 454. Death of Aetius.
<i>Maximus I. Avitus.</i>	455	Second sack of Rome by Gaiseric and Vandals.
Leo I. <i>Majorianus.</i>	456	Influence of Barbarian Patricians; Aspar in East; Ricimer in West. 460. REFORMATION OF ARMY COMMENCED BY LEO I. Western fleet destroyed by Gaiseric.
<i>Severus IV. Anthemius.</i>	461	468. Eastern attack on Carthage defeated by Gaiseric. 471. Leo I. murders Aspar. End of Barbarian dominance in East.
<i>Olybrius. Glycerius.</i>	467	Ricimer kills Anthemius. Third sack of Rome.
Leo II. <i>Zeno. Julius Nepos. Romulus Augustus.</i>	472	
	473	
	474	
	475	476. Romulus Augustus deposed by Odoacar the Herule, who becomes Patrician and King of Italy. 477-491. Zeno continues reorganization of Eastern army. 488. Ostrogoths under Theodoric the Great leave Balkania to settle in Italy.
EMPERORS OF THE EAST. (Co Regents shown in italics.)		
Anastasius I.	491	491-518. Reorganization and financial reforms in the East.
Justin I.	518	526. Death of Theodoric the Great. Justinian, nephew of Justinus and Caesar of the Empire, begins to codify the law. Justinian weds the dancer Theodora.
Justinianus I.	527	529. PROMULGATION OF THE CODE OF JUSTINIAN, FIRST EDITION. 528-532. War with Persia. Victories of Belisarius and Mundus. 532. The "Nika" Sedition. 533. Conquest of Africa by Belisarius. PUBLICATION OF THE PANDECTS AND INSTITUTES. 534. SECOND EDITION OF THE CODE. 535-540. Conquest of Italy by Belisarius. 537. COMPLETION OF CHURCH OF SANCTA SOPHIA. 541-549. Re-conquest of Italy by Badila. 542. THE GREAT PLAGUE. 540-546. Second Persian War. 548. Death of Theodora. 546-556. The Lazic war with Persia; Persians finally defeated. 551. SILKWORM INTRODUCED INTO THE EMPIRE. 552-553. Final conquest of Italy by Narses. 553. Fifth General Council of the Church at Constantinople. 554. Conquest of Southern Spain by Liberius. 558. Cotrigur Huns raid Thraee. Defeated by Belisarius.
Justinus II. <i>Sophia.</i>	565	AVARS AND SLAVS BEGIN TO INVADE EMPIRE. 568-571. Italy overrun by Lombards. War with Persia commences and continues for nineteen years. Devastation of borderlands.
Tiberius II. <i>Mauricius</i>	578	591. Peace with Persia. 591-602. Avaric War. Roman victories (600-602) ended by mutiny of troops.
Phocas (Focas).	582	Murder of Maurice and his family. 602-610. Murderous tyranny of Phocas. Disastrous war with Persia.
Heracleus I.	602	608. Persians reach Bosphorus.
	610	Phocas deposed and killed by Heracleus, son of Exarch of Africa. 614. Persians sack Jerusalem. 616. Persians overrun Egypt. 617. Persians take Chalcedon. 620. Persians attempt to cross Bosphorus. Defeated by Heracleus. 622. Heracleus's First Campaign. Asia Minor cleared. 623. Heracleus invades Persia. 624. Heracleus checked by three Persian armies, which he defeats in turn. 625. Persians under Shahr-baraz endeavour to take offensive in Asia Minor. Defeated by Heracleus, who recovers Cilicia and Mesopotamia. 626. Great efforts of Khusr. Heracleus contained by one army while Shahr-baraz and Avars converge on Constantinople. FIRST GREAT SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE. AVARS DEFEATED. 627. Last efforts of Persia; Battle of Nineveh, December 12. Persians defeated. Heracleus captures Khusr's Palace-city, Yeshim. 628. Heracleus captures Khusr's Palace-city, Dastagerd. Khusr deposed and murdered by his son. End of Persian War. 634. ARABS INVADE SYRIA. Battles of Ajnadin and Yermuk. 635. Fall of Damascus. 636. Heracleus abandons Syria. 637. Fall of Jerusalem. 638. Battle of Eusea. Final conquest of Syria by Arabs. 639-641. Arab conquest of Egypt.
Constantinus III. <i>Heracleus II. (Heraclionas). Empress Martina.</i>	641	Attempt of Empress Martina to usurp supreme power frustrated.
Constantinus IV. ("Constans II.")	642	Decline of art and literature for a century. 642-658. Continued successes of Arabs until 658, when truce concluded. 655. Constans defeated off Mount Phoenix in Syria. 658. Constans subjugates the Slavs in Balkania, and reorganizes defences of Empire. 662-668. Constans in the West. He checks the progress of Arabs in Africa.
Constantinus V. "Pogonatos."	668	Arab attacks. 673-677. SECOND GREAT SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE. Arabs finally defeated by land and sea, partly by aid of "Greek Fire." Peace with Arabs. 679. Bulgars under Asparuch establish themselves south of the Danube. 680. Sixth General Council of the Church at Constantinople.
Justinianus II. <i>Leontius.</i>	685	
	695	Anarchy and decline. War with Arabs renewed by Justinian II. Arabs conquer Africa and invade Asia Minor. Arabs conquer Spain. Khalif Valid prepares to besiege Constantinople.
Tiberius III.	698	
Justinianus II. restored.	705	
Philippicus.	711	
Anastasius II.	713	
Theodosius III.	716	
Leo III.	717	
Constantinus VI. (or V.) <i>Artavasdos (Usurper 741-742).</i>	740	THIRD GREAT SIEGE OF CONSTANTINOPLE. 718. Final repulse of Arabs from Constantinople. 718-726. Leo consolidates his power and commences reorganization of Empire. 726. Leo prohibits adoration of images. Schism in Christian Church. 727. Revolt of Greeks. Troubles in Italy. Arabs take advantage of discord to raid Asia Minor. 727-739. Leo puts down revolts and reorganizes Empire. 739. Leo defeats Arabs at Acrioion. 740. LEO PUBLISHES A NEW LEGAL MANUAL, THE "ECLOGA." Great changes for the better in social and economic conditions indicated.
Leo IV. "The Khazar."	775	741-742. Constantine defeats usurper Artavasdos and resumes his father's work. Flourishing state of Empire. 745-751. Victories of Constantine in East. 751. Lombards take Ravenna. 753. Iconoclastic Council of Eastern Church at Constantinople. Constantine persecutes the "Iconodules" (Image worshippers). 757-775. Constantine wars down the Bulgarians.
Constantinus VII. <i>Irene.</i>	780	Victories over Saracens in East. 780-783. War with Saracens; Irene purchases a truce. 783-784. Slavs of Macedonia, Thessaly and Hellas brought more completely under Imperial rule. 784-787. Irene effects an Iconodule reaction in the Eastern Church.
Irene.	797	Irene deposes and blinds her son. Asia Minor invaded by Khalif Harun-er-Rashid. 800. POPE LEO III. CROWNS CHARLES THE GREAT EMPEROR OF THE WEST AT ROME, DECEMBER 25.
Nicephorus I.	802	Irene deposed and imprisoned. 804-809. Nicephorus defeated by Harun. 811. Nicephorus defeated and slain by Krum of Bulgaria. Revival of art and literature.
Stavrakios. Michael I.	811	Stavrakios (mortally wounded) deposed by Michael I. 811-813. Disastrous war with Bulgars under Krum. Krum besieges Constantinople, but retires. 814. Death of Krum. Leo defeats Bulgarians. Peace with Bulgaria. Internal peace and reform.
Leo V. The Armenian.	813	Michael of Amorium murders Leo V. Civil war, during which Saracens conquer Crete. Sicily invaded.
Michael II. <i>Thomas (usurper)</i>	820	
	820-823.	

DATES OF THE LATER ROMAN EMPIRE—continued

EMPERORS OF THE EAST. (Co-Regents sh. wn in italics.)	YEAR (Christian Era).	EVENTS.
Theophilus.	829	Final recrudescence of Iconoclasm. Theophilus persecutes Iconodules. 831-838. War with Saracens. Annexation of Southern Crimea (Cherson). 838. Theophilus defeated at Dasymon. Saracens sack Amorium.
Michael III. The Drunkard. <i>Theodora II. 842-857.</i>	842	Final Iconodule reaction. 842-857. Regency of Theodora. Reorganization of finances. Desultory war on the frontiers. Sicily slowly lost. Omar of Malatia raids Asia Minor. Romans raid Mesopotamia and Egypt. Revolt of Paulician dissenters on eastern border. 857-866. Regency of Bardas Caesar. REFOUNDATION OF UNIVERSITY OF CONSTANTINOPLE. Reorganization of army. REVIVAL OF LEARNING. PHOTIUS, LEO THE MATHEMATICIAN, ETC. 863. Annihilation of Saracen army under Omar of Malatia at Abyssianos.
<i>Basilius I.</i> Basilius I.	866 868	Murder of Bardas. The Chamberlain Basilius colleague Emperor. Murder of Michael III. by Basil. Slavs of Dalmatia become tributary. 869-870. Church Council at Constantinople. 874. Basil in East. Suppression of Paulician Revolt. 876-888. Conquest of Southern Italy. Byzantine naval victories. 878. Saracens storm Syracuse. 884. FIRST EDITION OF CODE OF BASIL (THE BASILIKA).
Leo VI. "The Wise." <i>Alexander.</i>	886	Impending decline of small-holding farmers under economic pressure. 892-893. War with Bulgaria. Tzar Simeon defeats Eastern army. 904. Saracens sack Thessalonika. 907. Russian attack on Constantinople. 909-912. Unsuccessful attempts to recover Crete. Advance of frontier on East.
Alexander. Constantine VIII. <i>Zoe I.</i> 915-919. <i>Romanus I. 919-945.</i>	912 913 919	914. Simeon of Bulgaria invades Empire. 915-917. Victories over Saracens. Favourable treaty with Khalif. 917. Great Bulgarian victory at Achelous, near Mesembria. 921. Simeon before Constantinople. 922. Legislation to protect small-holders against great landowners 925. Peace with Bulgaria. 927-942. Victories of Johannes Kourkias in East. Advance of frontier. Magyars raid Thrace. 941. Russian attack on Constantinople defeated. 947. Legislation to protect small-holders. 954-959. Nicephorus Phokas General in the East. Magyars repulsed in Europe. 960-961. Nicephorus Phokas recovers Crete. 962. Nicephorus Phokas invades Syria and storms Aleppo. Magyars defeated.
Romanus II.	959	Saracens defeated in Cilicia by Johannes Kourkias "Tchermchik" (Tzhmiskes). 964-968. Nicephorus conquers Cilicia and Cyprus. Russians under Sviatoslav attack decaying Bulgaria. 968. Nicephorus conquers Northern Syria.
Basil II. "Bulgaroktonos." Constantine IX. <i>Nicephorus II. 963-969.</i> <i>Johannes I. 969-976.</i>	963 969	Russians conquer Bulgaria. Johannes Tzhmiskes murders Nicephorus. 970. Russians sack Philippopolis. Bardas Skleros defeats them at Arcadiopolis. 971. Johannes crosses Haemus. Battle of Great Preslav. Siege and Battles of Destr (Silistria). Surrender of Sviatoslav. Conquest of East Bulgaria. 974-975. Victories of Johannes in Mesopotamia and Syria. Abbasid Khalif pays tribute. 976-989. Ascendancy of Basil Lecapenos. President of Senate. Bardas Skleros rebels against Lecapenos. 986. Defeated by Bardas Phokas. New Bulgarian-Slav Empire under Samuel. Basil II. defeated by Samuel. 986. Rebellion of Phokas. Basil suppresses revolt and becomes supreme. 989. VLADIMIR SVIATOSLAVOVICH, KING OF RUSSIA, BAPTIZED, and marries Basil's sister Anna. 991. Basil in Armenia. 995. Basil overruns Syria. 996. Samuel defeated at Lania by Nicephorus Uranos. Basil legislates to protect small-holders. 1000-1002. Basil conquers Old Bulgaria and Macedonia and defeats Samuel at Skopje. 1002-1013. Incessant campaigns of Basil against Samuel, who is gradually forced into country about Okhrida. 1010. Revolt in Italy suppressed by Basil Mesardonites. 1014. Basil utterly defeats Samuel on Mt. Bichlisicia. Death of Samuel. 1016. Basil in Armenia. 1017-1018. BASIL COMPLETES CONQUEST OF BALKANIC INLAND. 1018. Revolt in Italy suppressed by Basil Boyanues. 1021-22. Basil conquers Armenia, Georgia, and Abasgia, rendering them tributary, and invades Persia. 1025. Death of Basil II.
Constantinus IX. (Alone). <i>Zoe. Romanus III.</i> (1028-1034). <i>Michael IV.</i>	1025-28 1028	Weak reign. Pechenegs and Saracen pirates defeated. Aristocratic ascendancy, and neglect of interests of peasantry. Rapid decline of rural population. 1028-1034. Desultory warfare on frontiers. Internal decay due to famine, etc.
Michael V. <i>Michael IV.</i>	1034	Financial pressure. Endeavour to levy a landtax on the great landowners. Attempts to conquer Sicily. Revolt of Serbs. Revolts in Balkania due to financial oppression. Michael suppresses revolts and dies.
Michael V. <i>Michael IV.</i>	1041	Michael V., nephew of Michael IV., deposes Zoe, but is overthrown by Constantinopolitans, who restore Zoe with her sister Theodora. Zoe again marries.
Constantinus X.	1042	1043. Last Russian attack on Constantinople defeated. 1045. Decline of Byzantine power in Italy. Annexation of most of Armenia. 1048-1053. Pecheneg and Seljuk raids. Peace and brief prosperity. End of Macedonian Line.
Theodora. Michael V. Stratiotikos. Isaacus I. Comnenos. Constantinus XI. Dukas. Michael VII. <i>Romanus IV.</i> <i>Eudocia (widow of C. X.).</i>	1054 1056 1057 1059 1067	[Tutes reforms, then abdicates (? under compulsion). Michael VI. overthrown by aristocratic revolt. 1057-1059. Isaac defeats Magyars and Pechenegs. Insti-False economy. Internal decay. Seljuks waste eastern provinces. Uzes raid Balkania. Disorganization and decay. Desolation by Seljuks. Normans conquering Southern Italy. 1067-70. Romanus campaigns against Seljuks. 1071. BATTLE OF MANAZKERT. Destruction of Army of East and captivity of Emperor. 1071-1078. Anarchy and civil war. Seljuks overrun Asia Minor.
Nicephorus III. Alexius I.	1078 1081	Continued anarchy. Seljuks take Nicaea. General Alexius Comnenos dethrones Emperor. Battle of Durazzo. Alexius defeated by Robert Guiscard and Normans. 1081-1086. Alexius gradually gains upper hand of Normans, assisted by Venice. 1087-1091. War with Pechenegs, who are finally driven out. 1091. Alexius recovers various Asiatic ports. Endeavours to obtain help from West. 1095-1097. FIRST CRUSADE. Western forces pass through Balkania. 1097. Alexius and Crusaders take Nicaea. Battle of Dorylaeum. Crusaders defeat Seljuks. Alexius reoccupies Western Asia Minor. 1098. Crusaders at Antioch. Alexius recovers more Asiatic territory. 1099-1100. Crusaders take Jerusalem and defeat Egyptians. Alexius reorganizes Western Asia Minor. 1103-1107. Alexius reconquers Cilicia and invades Norman State of Antioch. 1107. Alexius defeats Normans under Bohemund. 1111. Alexius defeats Seljuks. 1116. Last campaign of Alexius. Seljuks defeated.
Johannes II. ("Kalo-Johannes.")	1118	Era of strict economy and careful administration. Decline of trade of Empire owing to Italian competition and Western occupation of Syria. 1120-1126. Conquests of Johannes in Asia Minor. 1123-1125. Defeat of Serbs and Hungarians. 1127. Trouble with Venice, now independent and restive. 1127-1136. Peace, economy, and attempted but futile economic revival. 1137-1142. Johannes conquers in Asia Minor, invades Syria, and makes Antioch tributary.
Manuel I.	1143	A Westernizer. Reckless warfare and extravagant expenditure. Johannes' work undone. 1144-1146. Successes in Syria and Asia Minor. 1146-1155. War with Normans of Sicily. 1147. Second Crusade passes through Empire. 1148. Conquest of Serbia. 1149-1165. Wars with Hungary. 1165-1166. Manuel conquers Bosnia, Croatia, Slavonia and Dalmatia. 1168. Hungarians totally defeated at Zeugmin. Hungary becomes politically subservient. 1170. Manuel aids Crusading States of Syria, which practically become his vassals. 1171-1174. War with Venice. Venetians defeated. 1176. Battle of Myriokephalon. Seljuks defeat Manuel. 1177-1178. Seljuks invade Empire, but are defeated. Peace.
Alexius II. Andronicus I. Isaacus II.	1180 1183 1185	Terrible internal state of Empire. Disappearance of free peasantry. [of Andronicus. Andronicus makes desperate attempt to reform the administration. 1185. War with Normans. Murder Defeat of Normans. 1186. Revolt of Bulgarians. 1186-1195. Bulgars establish their independence. Extravagance at Court. Maladministration and internal ruin. 1190. Friedrich Barbarossa crosses Empire. 1191. Cyprus (semi-independent under Isaac "Comnenos") conquered by Richard I. of England. 1193. Serbian revolt suppressed.
Alexius III.	1195	Isaac II. deposed by his brother Alexius. 1195-1200. Revolt and internal misery. Waste and extravagance at Court. 1203. Venetians induce Fourth Crusade to turn against Empire.
Isaacus II. (restored). Alexius IV. Alexius V. Dukas.	1204	Invaders restore Isaac II. with his son Alexius. Rising against them. Isaac and Alexius deposed by Alexius Dukas. Death of Isaac and Alexius. STORM AND DESTRUCTION OF CONSTANTINOPLE. DISRUPTION OF EMPIRE. Latin Empire of Constantinople. Latin Empire of Thessalonika. Latin States in Greece. Venetians in Islands, etc. Greek Empire of Nicaea. Greek Empire of Trebizond. Greek States in Albania, etc. Serbia independent. Croatia, etc., occupied by Hungary. Much of Balkania seized by Serbs and Bulgarians. Parts of Asia Minor occupied by Seljuks. Cilician Armenia, etc., independent.



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

CONSTANTINE TRACING THE BOUNDARIES OF THE NEW CAPITAL.

The transference of the capital of the Roman Empire from Rome was mainly due to the unfitness of the ancient capital as headquarters from which to direct the defence of the line of the Danube. When attendants spoke of the extensive boundary which he was tracing the Emperor replied that a heavenly guide marched before him.

CHAPTER XII

THE ROMANS (continued). By EDWARD FOORD

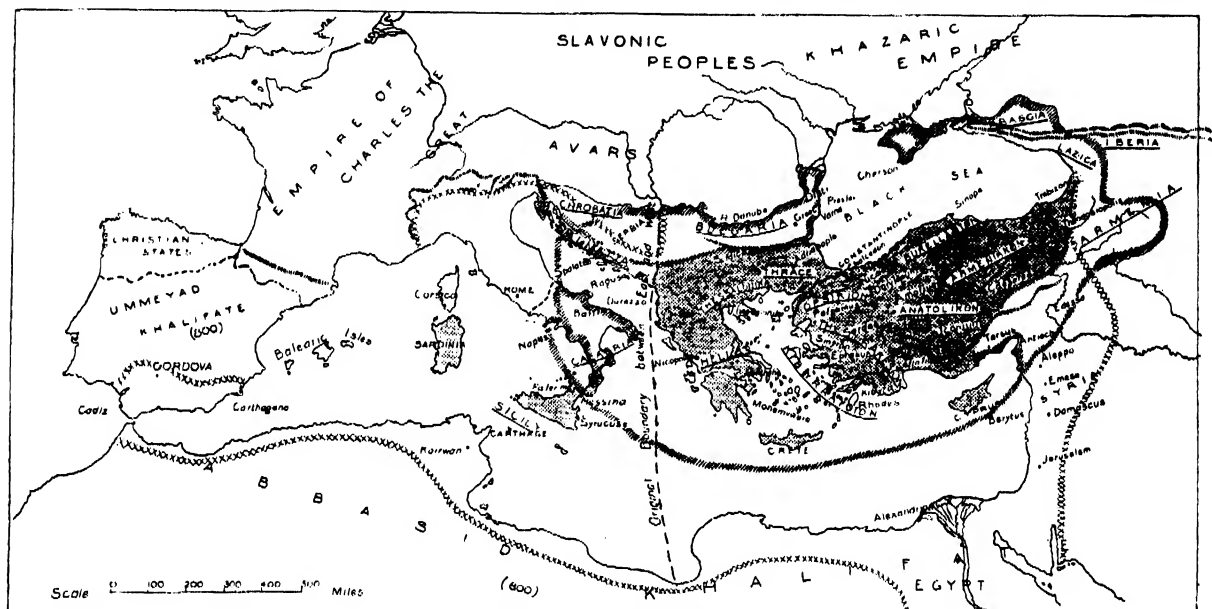
THE LATER ROMAN (BYZANTINE) EMPIRE

FOR too many readers of Roman history all interest appears to cease with the sack of Rome by Alaric and his Visigoths in A.D. 410. The violation of the City of the Caesars was an event of such dramatic impressiveness that its actual importance may easily be overestimated. In itself, indeed, it possessed comparatively little importance. Rome in 410 was no longer the capital of the empire, and not even the administrative centre of one of the Praefectures or Dioceses. It was not a great military centre like Trier, nor a focus of commerce like Alexandria; still less did it possess the unique advantages of peerless Constantinople. It was simply a vast city of somewhat decayed magnificence, largely peopled by state-paupers, for whose subsistence funds, that should have been applied elsewhere, were lavishly expended. It lived upon the memories of the past. Nevertheless, the blow to the prestige of the empire—at any rate, in the West—was a heavy one. To the barbarians the city was the Roman state, and when they knew that Alaric had stormed its walls and carried off its treasures, they began to regard the empire as their natural prey.

Yet the disruption and ruin of the empire was only in the West. The administrative centre had been transferred eighty years before by Constantine the Great to Byzantium—"Nova Roma"—and the economic centre of gravity lay in A.D. 410 still farther east. By a combination of barbarian ravage, civil war, economic decay and maladministration, all the provinces of the West, except to a certain extent Spain, had been greatly wasted and impoverished. In the East the Balkanic Peninsula had indeed

been ravaged ; but the regions east of the Aegean had scarcely suffered at all from the effect of foreign war, and Asia Minor was, as it had always been, by far the wealthiest and most valuable of the provinces. Moreover, the economic causes which had wrecked the West had been far less operative in the East, the prosperity of which depended very largely upon sea-borne commerce. The ruthless taxation of the Later Empire afflicted East and West alike ; but the East, with its keen trading populations, its great Asiatic commerce, and its natural wealth, was better able, unharassed by barbarian irruptions, to endure it than the unhappy western provinces. It is probably not an exaggeration to say that, though the Eastern Empire included considerably less than half of the total area that obeyed Theodosius the Great, it probably contained two-thirds of its wealth and power of production. It also possessed within its boundaries some relatively rude and warlike races, furnishing excellent material for armies wherewith to hold off the oncoming barbarians.

To this wealthier, more populous and more prosperous section of the Roman Empire Constantine the Great had transferred the centre of political power. For the new capital he chose the ancient



THE BYZANTINE EMPIRE.

The extent of the empire after the reconquest of Justinian I. is shown thus xxxxxx. The remnant surviving after the conquests of the Saracens, Avars, Bulgars and Lombards is shaded. The boundary of the regenerated empire after the conquests of Basil II. is shown thus //////////. Many adjacent territories were frequently tributary to the empire. In 1025 almost all Armenia and the Caucasus were dependent.

Hellenic settlement of Byzantium. Never, perhaps, has there existed a city so completely combining all the advantages needed by the administrative centre of a great civilized state. This extraordinary pre-eminence of Constantinople was not the least of the causes which enabled the Eastern Roman Empire to survive its elder sister of the West, and to maintain itself so long amid the convulsions which swept away well-nigh everything without its borders.

When Theodosius the Great died in 395 his elder son, Arcadius, succeeded him in the more important East, while the younger, the nonentity Honorius, reigned over the West under the guardianship of the famous Romanized Vandal Stilicho. Arcadius was as insignificant a personality as his younger brother, and it was certainly not due to him that he left his eastern heritage unbroken to his almost equally insignificant son Theodosius II. Theodosius was under the tutelage, first, of the able and disinterested minister Anthemius ; then of his remarkable sister Pulcheria ; finally, of an ambitious eunuch, Chrysaphius. Internally a policy of steady recuperation and reform was pursued. Cities were rebuilt, lands recultivated, taxes remitted, and a great codification of Roman law, the *Codex Theodosianus*, carried out (429-438). The army, unfortunately, was not included in the scheme of reform, and remained, as it had been under Theodosius I., a mass of barbarian "foederati," without



Painted by]

JULIAN THE APOSTATE.

Julian's youth was embittered by the massacre of the males of the younger line of the Flavian family, he and his half-brother Gallus alone being spared. He lost faith in Christianity, and in his later years tried much to undermine it. He is seen in company with pagan courtiers listening to the theological discussions of Christians

[Edward Armstrong, R.A.]



Painted specially for this work]

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE CORONATION OF MARCIANUS.

From a life of obscurity, Marcianus passed to a career of great distinction. Pulcheria, successor of Theodosius II., chose him as her consort, and their reign was marked by wise reforms in an empire greatly ravaged by the Huns. He refused to pay the tribute levied by Attila and repopulated the districts laid waste. Marcianus and Pulcheria are seen raised on the shields of their soldiers amidst the acclamations of the people.

sense of loyalty to the empire, and commanded by turbulent and ambitious Teutonic chiefs, whose instinct naturally was to rival the exploits of Alaric.

In foreign affairs the Eastern Empire was generally able to play a dignified part during the stormy years of dissolution in the West. Prestige in the East was revived by a brief and successful war with Persia in 421-422, while in the West, after the death of Honorius, his nephew, Valentinian III., was established at Ravenna by Theodosius. But there was disastrous warfare with the Huns under the terrible Attila, during which Balkanland was wasted almost to the gates of Constantinople, and which was only concluded by a most disgraceful peace. In 447 the walls of Constantinople were shattered by an earthquake, and the city might have been taken but for the frantic energy of its people, who toiled night and day for two months to repair and strengthen the ruined defences. This disastrous period ended in 450, when Theodosius II. was succeeded by his sister Pulcheria. She gave her hand to Marcianus, a distinguished general. Under their rule the ignominious peace with Attila was repudiated, and troops dispatched to the west, which aided the famous Patrician Aetius finally to repulse the terrible "Scourge of God." Much was done to reorganize the East, and an attempt made to compose differences in the Church at the General Council of Chalcedon (A.D. 451).

Pulcheria died in 453. When in 457 Marcianus followed her, Aspar, an Alan, the chief general of the empire, made an attempt to do in the East what Ricimer the Sueve was successfully achieving in the West—to control the appointment of emperors. He succeeded in procuring the election of the superintendent of his own household, Leo the Thracian. Unfortunately for Aspar, Leo was a man of ability

and determination. After much obscure intrigue, of which little that is definite is known, he put Aspar to death in 471, and so quelled the fear of a Teutonic king-maker. Under Leo and his successors, Zeno and Anastasius I., a policy of internal reorganization was steadily pursued, and the army was reformed by recruiting it from the native subjects of the empire. The Balkanic lands continued to suffer from barbarian ravages, but the Asiatic provinces generally increased in prosperity. Anastasius I. died in 518, leaving a prosperous realm, an overflowing treasury, and a formidable army to his successor, Justinus I., who was followed in 527 by his nephew Justinian I.



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

THE SIEGE OF ROME, 537-538 A.D.

Belisarius, the famous general of Justinian I., was employed by the latter to reconquer Italy from the Ostrogoths. For over a year he was besieged in Rome by a vast host of Goths, which he finally repulsed. One of the strongholds of defence was Hadrian's tomb, now the Castle of St. Angelo. Its beautiful statues were used as missiles.

Justinian was a man of mature years, a diligent student and an indefatigable worker. His talents were not perhaps exceptionally brilliant, but he had the gift of detecting ability in others. His tireless industry made a great impression upon his contemporaries, and caused the superstitious among them to mutter that it was diabolic! His marriage caused the greatest wonder. At the age of forty, an



From the painting]

[By Val Prinsep, R.A.]

THEODORA IMPERATRIX.

Justinian's marriage with the dancer Theodora inspired an immense amount of slander. Actually Theodora seems to have been a woman of exceptional capacity, possessing courage of the highest order. Though accused of pride and self-seeking, it is certain she was full of practical sympathy. She was admittedly the most beautiful woman of her age.

The city "demes," or wards, which called themselves by the colours of the chariot races of the Hippodrome, united to depose the Emperor, using as their war-cry the word "Nika" ("Victory!"). Half Constantinople went up in flames during four days of furious street fighting. All offers of pardon and concessions were refused; a claimant was hailed emperor by the rebels; Justinian's guards were steadily driven back. The situation appeared desperate. All the ministers and generals present advised flight, and Justinian himself leaned to their opinion, when Theodora, who had hitherto sat in silence, sprang

apparently eminently staid and unromantic personage, he fell violently in love with Theodora, a beautiful actress, and wedded her in defiance of his uncle, who threatened to disinherit him. The amount of truth in the scandal which was circulated about Theodora cannot be estimated; it appears to have possessed little foundation in fact. That Theodora was faithful to Justinian there seems to be no doubt; when definite information is obtainable concerning her influence it is usually to her credit; that her courage at a crisis saved her husband's throne is certain.

Justinian had two grand objects in life—to recover from barbarian rule all that he could of the Western Empire, and to draw up for the benefit of his subjects a complete and comprehensive code of laws. With the assistance of the famous jurist Tribonian, the latter design was achieved, and the publication of the Code, the "Pandects," or Digest, and the "Institutes," or Manual, established the fame of Justinian as one of the greatest of lawgivers. In the execution of his plans of reconquest he was much hindered by the hostility of Persia, under Khusru Anushirvan, the greatest of the Sassanian kings. The Persians were, however, on the whole kept at bay, and Khusru's determined attempt (546-556) to force his way to a seaboard on the Black Sea, by conquering Colchis, was decisively foiled. The Vandals were rooted out of Africa, which they had misruled for nearly a century, by the famous general Belisarius. Dalmatia was recovered from the Ostrogoths by a Teutonic general, Mundus; and after a devastating struggle of eighteen years Italy, despite the heroic resistance of King Baduila, was eventually reconquered by the second of Justinian's great captains, Narses the Armenian. Finally, southern Spain was regained from the Visigoths.

Internally Justinian's position was for the greater part of his reign unassailed; but in 532 he had to face a most perilous revolt of the populace of Constantinople, which directly threatened his throne.

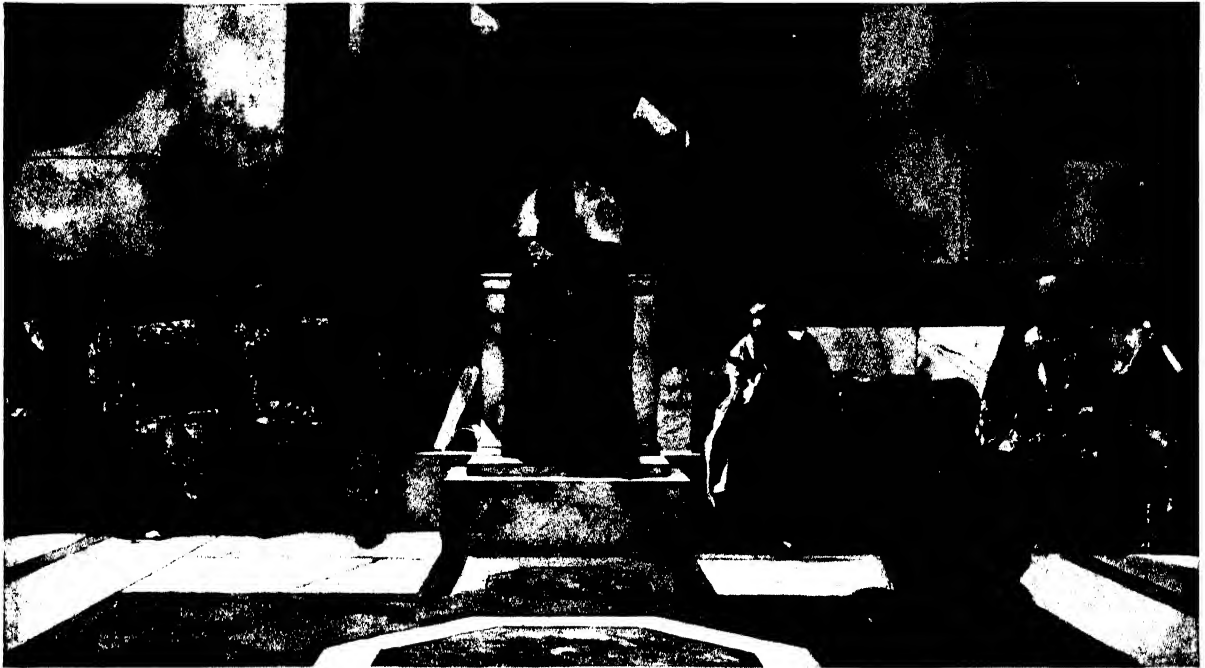


Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.

THEODORA DURING THE NIGHT OF REBELLION.

In 532 the throne of Justinian was endangered by a revolt in Constantinople, known as the "Nika" sedition, from the war-cry adopted by the insurgents. The rebels burnt almost the entire city and besieged the Emperor and his guards in the palace. All the Emperor's councillors advised a withdrawal from the city, a course which would probably have led to his ultimate downfall, when the Empress sprang up to combat their advice, and induced them to make a last desperate sally, which was completely successful.

*From the painting]**[By Benjamin Constant.*

JUSTINIAN IN COUNCIL.

Justinian is here shown giving audience to an Ecclesiastical Council. Bishops and other dignitaries of the Church are seated on each side of him, whilst a hermit, roughly clothed in hair-cloth, sits before him on the floor reading from a manuscript.

up and advised resistance to the death. This was no woman's business, she said, but it was not a time to pay regard to antiquated conventions. Her fiery words, backed by the force of her magnetic personality, roused the faltering emperor and his advisers to the greatness of the occasion. The weary troops marched forth for a last desperate effort, and the "Nika" revolt came to an end in a deluge of blood.

Legislation and conquest were far from exhausting Justinian's manifold energies. He was a mighty builder, and in architecture—fortunate in this as in other things—he was assisted by a veritable king in his profession, the far-famed Anthemius of Tralles, who produced for him the wondrous Church of the Divine Wisdom at Constantinople, which survives to this day as a monument of his genius. Sancta Sophia was but one of hundreds of churches built or restored by Justinian; among them may be mentioned San Vitale and S. Apollinare in Classe at Ravenna. His civil and military constructions were on a vast scale—the Balkanic provinces were defended by a system of two hundred and ninety-four forts.

But these manifold and far-reaching designs needed for their due execution a gigantic outlay of money, and the world-splendour of the reign of Justinian was bought at the price of the impoverishment of the people. Justinian himself was certainly not a conscious oppressor, but as much can hardly be said of his evil finance minister, Johannes the Cappadocian; and the emperor, like many well-meaning men both before and afterwards, lacked experience of the real needs and sufferings of his subjects. Theodora did all in her power to unveil and check the extortions of the unscrupulous minister, but she died in 548; and for the remaining seventeen years of Justinian's reign matters went from bad to worse. In 542 a terrible outbreak of bubonic plague further weakened the empire. In his last years the failing old emperor lost his grip on affairs, and internal slackness and disorder supervened, while public defence was so neglected that in 558 a Hunnish raid reached almost to the walls of the capital, and had to be driven off by Belisarius with a hurried levy of pensioners and militia. Yet, with all his faults and failures, Justinian was an able and well-intentioned ruler, and his reign leaves an impression of majesty and order which is generally lacking in those of his successors.

The rulers who immediately followed Justinian were men of considerable ability and excellent intentions, but hampered from within by administrative disorder and economic exhaustion, and from without

by ceaseless foreign wars. Italy, for the most part, fell with little resistance into the hands of the Teutonic Longobards. The Avars, a horde of savage Mongols, commingled with the hardly less barbarous Slavs, now being pressed southward from the great European plain, ravaged the Balkanic inland; and the Slavs formed settlements there which have proved permanent. The Persians pressed hard on the eastern frontier; and though the Emperor Maurice succeeded in concluding an honourable peace, the war broke out with renewed fury in 602, when he was murdered by the brutal Phocas. After eight years of bloody tyranny, this worst of all Roman emperors was deposed and executed by Heraclius, son of the Exarch of Africa; but the end of the empire seemed to be at hand. The Balkanic provinces were practically lost; the Persians, under Khusru II.—“Aparvez” (“the Victorious”)—were steadily overrunning the Asiatic regions. The prospect was so gloomy that at one time Heraclius had thoughts of transferring the capital to Carthage. The result of the terrible danger was a great outburst of something like patriotic enthusiasm, and after twelve years of disaster, Heraclius was able to attack the Persians. His six great Persian campaigns are among the most brilliant in all history. Khusru Aparvez struggled desperately, but in vain. In 626 he made a supreme effort, in conjunction with the Avars, to call back Heraclius, who was in Armenia, threatening to invade Persia. The whole Avaric horde besieged Constantinople on the land side, while a great Persian army made its way to Chalcedon—and stayed, for in the strait between Persian and Avar lay the navy of Heraclius, which defeated every attempt at union. The siege was abandoned, and next year Heraclius gained a splendid victory near Nineveh, destroying the last army that Khusru could array. Khusru, who had become practically insane, was deposed by his subjects, and the last Romano-Persian war ended in success for Rome.

And yet the success was but the prelude to fresh and tremendous disasters. The victory over Persia was indeed complete, and before the wild onset of the followers of Mohammed who, under his successors, poured out of Arabia in 633, the Persian Empire rapidly crumbled away. But Heraclius also had to face the Islamites, and his disciplined battalions—unprovided, be it remembered, with the firearms which have given British troops the victory over Soudanese fanatics—proved unable to withstand them. Syria was conquered almost under his eyes, and before his death Egypt had been also overrun. Attempts to reconquer the lost territories were without avail. The Syrians and Egyptians were generally indifferent, if not friendly, towards the new-comers. The Romano-Hellenic civilization had never deeply



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE INTRODUCTION OF THE SILKWORM.

The introduction of the silkworm into the Roman Empire in the reign of Justinian II. was an event of the highest economic importance. The secret of the manufacture had hitherto been jealously guarded by the Chinese, but some adventurous Greek monks contrived to abstract some cocoons and brought them to Constantinople in bamboo staves.

affected their own culture ; neither had the Roman imperial government inspired affection ; it was rather held in detestation on account of its heavy taxation. The people were also mostly dissenters from the Orthodox Church. For these and other reasons the resistance of the troops and officials was not supported by the population at large. In Egypt the natives welcomed the invaders, and both there and in Syria Islam made many converts. The promises of toleration and good government made, and for a time kept, by the Arabs also helped the end. By 642 only the Christians of Lebanon still remained faithful and kept up a fierce resistance. In Africa affairs were different. The people were devoted to the Heracliads, and the whole province, for some sixty years, offered a stubborn and united opposition, which was only overcome with great difficulty.

In 641 Heraclius died. He had for some years been slowly sinking from dropsy ; and doubtless the



Painted specially for this work

THE DEPOSITION OF PHOCAS, 610 A.D.

[By A. C. Weatherstone.]

The Emperor Phocas was a mere brutal soldier who became Emperor through being leader of a military mutiny. He was not merely blood-thirsty but utterly incapable, allowing the empire to be overrun by the Persians. He was deposed by Heraclius I. and cut to pieces on the deck of the latter's flagship.

grief at seeing his great work on the eastern frontier wholly undone hastened his end. Yet though he had failed to preserve the Oriental provinces, his administration had undoubtedly been successful in firmly attaching Asia Minor to Roman rule, so that it now became the mainstay of the state.

Heraclius's private vagaries brought further trouble upon the unhappy empire. After the death of his first wife he had fallen violently in love with his niece Martina, and married her despite general disapproval. Martina endeavoured to oust her stepson Constantine III. and make her own son Heraclius II. sole ruler, and to this end she was believed to have poisoned the former. After much disorder and intrigue she and her unfortunate son were barbarously mutilated and banished ; and Constantine IV. (called "Constans II."), the son of Constantine III., came to the throne.

Constans II. succeeded in temporarily checking the progress of the Arabs, who were now distracted by civil broils and anxious to conclude a truce. He then reorganized the defences of Asia Minor, introducing



Painted specially for this work]

[By J. A. Bryan.]

THE VICTORY OF HERACLIUS AT NINEVEH.

On taking over the empire from Phocas, Heraclius I. found disaster and confusion everywhere. After twelve years of preparation he succeeded in raising a great fleet and army. He took the offensive by invading Persia, and in six wonderful campaigns completely crippled the new Persian Empire. His crowning triumph was won on the site of Nineveh on December 12th, 627, when he utterly defeated the Persian army, killing its commander Reza in single combat.



Painted specially for this work]

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE HUMILIATION OF MARTINA.

By his incestuous marriage with his niece Martina, Heraclius I. alienated public opinion. Martina is said to have poisoned her stepson Constantine III. in favour of her son Heraclius II., but the people declared a woman should never domineer over the Roman Empire, and they were both deposed.

a regular territorial system for the army; subjugated the Slavs, who had settled all over Balkania, and turned his attention to the West, where he stayed the progress of the Arabs in Africa. He remained in the West for five years, and was in 668 assassinated in his bath, at Syracuse, by his attendant Andreas. The reign of his youthful son Constantine "Pogonatos"—the Bearded—opened with a general advance of the Arabs, under Muaviah, the first of the Ummeyyad Khalifs. The attacks culminated in a tremendous siege of Constantinople, which lasted for four years (673-677). The Arabs were at last completely defeated, chiefly by the efforts of the Roman navy, which had been fitted with some kind of primitive cannon, projecting bombs filled with a destructive incendiary compound—the famous "Greek fire." Muaviah was so disheartened that he made peace, paying a large war indemnity. Constantine's victory made a tremendous impression in Europe, and envoys flocked to Constantinople to offer their felicitations. Had the Eastern Empire given way before the attack of the Arabs, the results would have been, in all probability, fatal to the nations which were slowly struggling into existence in the West. They possessed as yet no national coherence; anarchy and civil

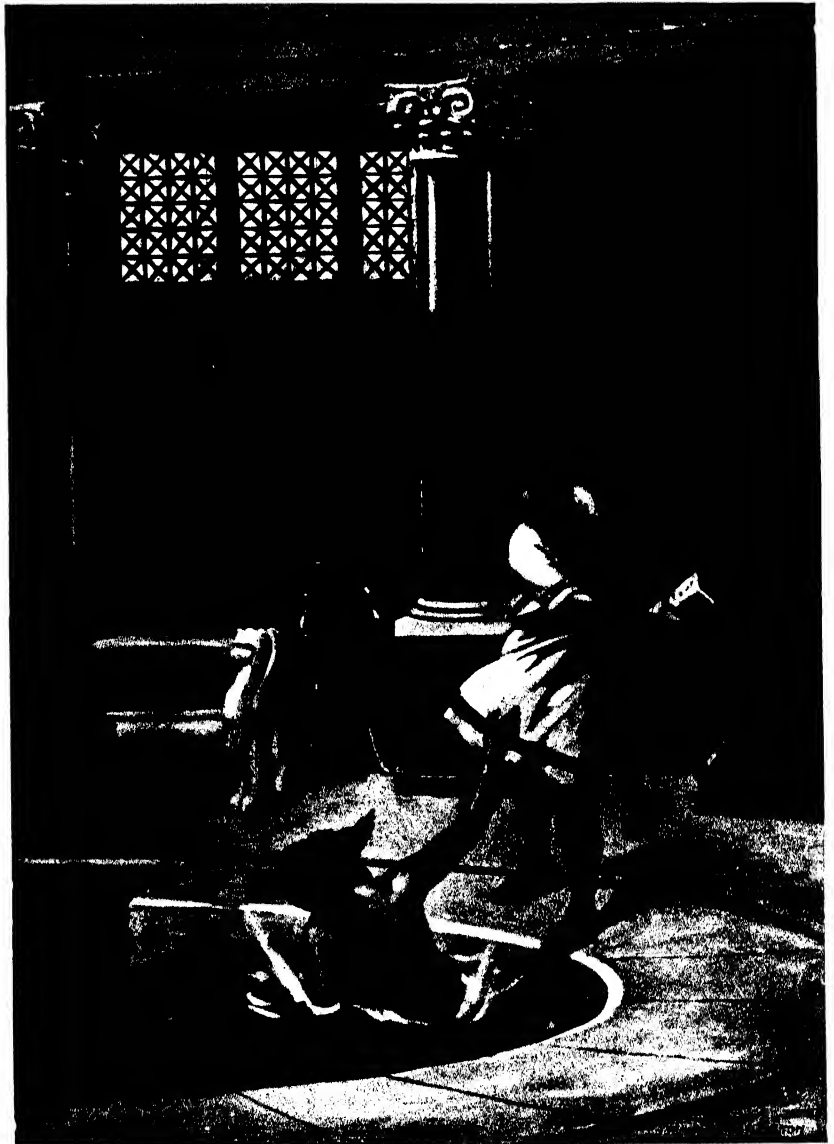
war had, except in Spain, all but destroyed the remains of the ancient Roman civilization; it is in the last degree improbable that any one of them could have resisted an attack made by the main strength of the Khalifate. It must be remembered that it was no mere political subjugation that was threatened, but the complete overthrow and destruction of Christian society by another which, however brilliantly it may at times have shone forth, can scarcely be said to have shown itself equal in civilizing power to that which it was assailing. But the new social order in Western Europe was, in the seventh century, of the crudest description; and the one hope for the future lay in the continued and steadfast resistance of the great ill-comprehended and much-maligned Guardian-Empire which centred at the City of Constantine.

Constantine IV. died prematurely in 685. He had failed to prevent the Bulgars, a savage Tartar tribe, from establishing a military monarchy on the Danube, but in all other respects his reign had been successful. Not the least of his services had been the calling of the Sixth General Council of the Church at Constantinople in 681, by which the "Monothelite" heresy, which had seduced Heraclius and Constans II., was condemned, and a semblance of unity restored to the Christian religion.

His early death was the forerunner of fresh disasters. His youthful son, Justinian II., was a reckless tyrant. His two reigns, separated by ten years of exile, and those of some ephemeral successors, occupy

a period of thirty-two disastrous years. The Saracens conquered Africa, overran Asia Minor, and threatened to besiege Constantinople. The Visigothic kingdom had been swept out of existence. Frankland was still torn with civil war, and assuredly there would have been no hope for the new nations had Constantinople fallen, and the main host of the Khalifate invaded Italy, while the conquerors of Spain came over the Pyrenees against the Franks. At this awful crisis, as in 610, there appeared once more a hero who was to beat back the oncoming Oriental foe.

Conon, the son of a North Syrian, as he probably was, Leo "the Isaurian," as his name appears upon the tablets of history, was in 716 general of the Anatolikoi (Army of the East), the largest of the "Themes," or army-corps, into which the Imperial forces were now divided. Leo had already acquired a great reputation for courage and resource, and was supported by other generals, who saw no hope but in him. The Emperor Theodosius III., an amiable nonentity, was defeated and forced to abdicate, and Leo seized the reins of power just in time. In August, 717, a host of 160,000 Saracens, supported by a flotilla of eighteen hundred sail, environed Constantinople. Leo had gathered together all available forces, but he was not strong enough to meet his enemies in the field. On the other hand, he had at his disposal a splendid navy, consisting mainly of powerful vessels fitted with Greek-fire tubes, which proved the mainstay of the defence. He had made great efforts to provision the city, and had negotiated with Terbel, Khan of the Bulgars. The Saracen armada was defeated on its first attempt to force the Bosphorus, and thereupon the commander-in-chief Maslama, brother of the Khalif Suleiman, trusted to close blockade, detaching part of his army to guard against the Bulgars. The winter, however, proved extraordinarily severe, and the besieging host began to melt away. Reinforcements, both naval and military, came in the spring of 718, but they contained many unwilling Christian levies, and, guided by them, Leo made a desperate attack on the newly-arrived fleet, totally defeating it. All the available troops were immediately ferried across the Bosphorus, and the reinforcing Arab army, which was near Chalcedon, was taken by surprise and utterly



Painted specially for this work

[By Watson Charlton.]

THE DEATH OF CONSTANS II.

After Martina's fall the son of the dead Constantine III., so-called Constans II., succeeded to the throne, being then a child. On attaining maturity he proved to be an exceedingly brave and able, but cruel and suspicious ruler. He checked the Saracens and endeavoured to re-establish Roman rule in the West. He was murdered in his bath at Syracuse.

routed. To complete the Arab disasters, Khan Terbel came over Haemus, and inflicted a bloody defeat upon the force which had been detailed to watch him. Then at last the stubborn Maslama raised the siege. Storms and fighting well-nigh completed the destruction of the fleet, and of the land army only some thirty thousand exhausted men regained the frontier. For more than twenty years Leo was left comparatively unmolested, and was free to consolidate the shattered empire, and to institute reforms which gave it a new lease of vigorous life.



Painted specially for this work

[By Allan Stewart.]

THE OATH OF JUSTINIAN II.

Justinian II., grandson of Constant II. and son of the great Constantine IV., who successfully defended Constantinople against the Saracens, was a savage half-insane tyrant. His two reigns were separated by ten years of exile. He was once almost shipwrecked, and when his attendants urged him to repentance, he furiously declared that God might drown him, but he would pardon none of his enemies.

death-struggle the old rigid Roman administration had become relaxed, and some of its worst features had disappeared. The class of "coloni"—serfs chained to the soil—had been replaced by a race of hardy freeholding farmers and peasants; and in Asia Minor, at any rate, the common peril and a common religion had produced something like a sentiment of nationality. This was the bright side of the prospect. But its shadows were also terribly apparent. Not merely the refinements of civilization, but its very essentials, were dying out amid the wild disorder and havoc, and art and literature had all but perished. Ignorance and degrading superstition were rife. The rule of the law was everywhere relaxed, and in many places anarchy reigned.

This astonishing revival of an apparently moribund state is the great feature of the empire's history during the eighth century, and furnishes a crushing reply to those who maintain that it was decayed and degenerate. Reforms are of small account except they have good and sound human material whereupon to operate; and since the measures of Leo III. produced such remarkable effect, it must be concluded that this essential requisite was not lacking in the remains of the Roman Empire.

Territorially, indeed, the realm of Leo III. was but a poor remnant of that of Justinian, consisting as it did of little more than Asia Minor and the southern part of the Balkanic Peninsula, with Sicily, Sardinia, Dalmatia, and some disjointed fragments of Italy. Its original population had been fearfully diminished. The Thracians in Europe had nearly disappeared and had been replaced by Slavs, who for a time squatted also over the interior of Greece. Asia Minor had been ravaged intermittently for over a century, and its ancient races must have been sorely weakened. To counterbalance, in some measure, the hideous wastage of a century of warfare there had been an extensive immigration of people who would not brook the Mohammedan yoke, or who were already learning that the finger of the successors of Mohammed was heavier than the whole hand of the Roman emperor. Also, in the course of the



Painted specially for this work

LEO III.'S VICTORY OVER THE SARACENS AT CONSTANTINOPLE, 717 A.D.

After the death of Justinian II. a period of confusion and disaster was ended by the rise to power of a great statesman and general, Leo "the Isaurian," probably the greatest of all the rulers of the Roman East. The first act of his reign was to save his capital from an enormous land and sea force sent against it by the Saracen Khalif. The siege lasted for more than a year, during which Leo's fleet, partly by the help of Greek fire, gained two splendid victories over the Saracen armada

[By Ambrose Dudley.]



Painted specially for this work]

[By Allan Stewart.

THE CORONATION BOUNTY OF LEO III.'s EMPRESS.

Having repulsed the Saracens, Leo III. devoted himself to reforms in Church and State, and his campaign against the cult of images made him many enemies. Even his enemies, however, never assailed his private life. Immediately after his first triumph he solemnly crowned his wife. The event was signalized by a public donation.

To wage unrelenting war against all these evils was the life-work of Leo "the Isaurian." He abandoned all idea of recovering lost provinces, and set himself to rebuild the shattered fabric of the empire in what remained of its territory. The work of repelling Saracen raids was left chiefly to his generals, and he appears to have deliberately ignored the Ravennese province as untenable and worthless.

Leo's internal reforms included the reorganization of the civil and defensive services, the re-establishment of the rule of law and order, and the reformation of the judicial system. He completely reorganized the finances, encouraged agriculture, commerce and industry, and made a strenuous attempt to combat the prevailing ignorance and superstition by his so-called "Iconoclastic" policy. The details of these reforms are to be gathered from his famous "Ecloga," or legal manual, which he published at the close of his reign.

Leo's religious measures are those which excited the most attention. He was, as a recent historian of the Byzantine Empire expresses it, of a strongly English type of mind, disliking ceremony and ritual and holding firmly to a few well-defined beliefs. He was filled with disgust at the superstition in the Orthodox Church, and one of his ideals was the restoration of Christian worship to something like its ancient simplicity. He was, of course, bitterly opposed by the official clergy and the numerous monks and nuns of the empire. Asia Minor and the defensive services steadily supported him; but in Europe, especially in Greece and Italy, the populace held by their ancient superstitions. The Popes of Rome led the opposition, and the schism between the Eastern and Western Churches may be said to have commenced in 726, when Leo's "Iconoclastic edict," forbidding the worship of images, and removing those which filled the churches, was issued. Revolts broke out: that of the Greeks was defeated; but in Italy the Lombards seized the opportunity to conquer some more of the remaining Imperial territory. The Saracens also invaded the empire, and intermittently raided Asia Minor until 739, when a heavy defeat was inflicted upon them at Acroïnon by Leo in person. Next year Leo died. He had raised up

the empire from the depths of misery and disaster, and had reorganized it so solidly that his work was to endure unbroken for more than three centuries. Of the man himself scarcely anything is known ; and the slender information that exists comes from bitter opponents. In the words of Finlay, Leo was the second founder of the Roman Empire. A born organizer, an excellent administrator, a great general and statesman, a religious enthusiast and reformer, the purity of whose life is unquestioned even by the enemies who have limned for us his portrait, Leo " the Isaurian," the Image-breaker, was indubitably one of the greatest men whom the world has seen.

Under Leo's son and successor, Constantine VI., a fiery warrior, a firm and industrious ruler, and an enthusiastic " Iconoclast," the empire continued to prosper. The Ravennese province in Italy was, indeed, lost to the Lombards ; but Constantine reduced Bulgaria to helplessness, and fought, on the whole, with success against the Saracens. But his fierce persecution of the Iconodules (" Image-worshippers "), the opponents of his Iconoclastic policy, made him hated by many. His son Leo IV. died young, and his widow Irene, an Athenian, able, ruthless, and without natural feelings, effected an Iconodulic reaction in religious matters. When she found her son Constantine VII., for whom she had been regent, disinclined to submit to her tutelage, she deposed and blinded him. For five years she ruled alone, but proved a poor substitute for the great Iconoclasts, and suffered several defeats from the Saracens. She was at last deposed by her treasurer, Nicephorus I., who had to suffer the consequences of her bad rule, and was slain in battle by the savage Krúm, Khan of the Bulgars. After a short interval of a weak Iconodulic persecutor, Michael I., the throne was seized by an Armenian warrior, Leo V., who repulsed the Bulgars and reorganized the empire. He was murdered in his chapel by his old comrade in arms, Michael of Amorium (820), who had then to fight for his throne with Thomas, another general. He finally prevailed and founded a new dynasty (840-867). During his reign and that of his son, Theophilus, disasters occurred, Crete and Sicily being lost to the Saracens of Africa, and a great invasion



Painted specially for this work

[By G. D. Rowlandson.

THE EXECUTION OF THE PATRIARCH CONSTANTINE.

Leo III. was succeeded by his son Constantine V., an able ruler and a fiery warrior, who successfully carried on his father's work. He was an even more determined " Iconoclast " than Leo, indulging in violent persecution of his opponents. The Patriarch of Constantinople, Constantine, was one of his most prominent victims, though he had at first supported him.

of Asia Minor carried out by the Khalif Mutasim. Michael III. was a dissolute boy, who eventually became a dipsomaniac, but the empire was well ruled by his mother Theodora and his uncle Bardas. The Saracens were defeated, art and literature encouraged, and a final codification of the law was commenced. Michael was murdered by his chamberlain Basilius, who thereupon seized the throne, proved an able ruler, and completed the arrangements begun by Theodora and Bardas in legal and financial matters. His armies secured the Asiatic frontier, conquered a great part of southern Italy, as an offset to lost Sicily, and extended Imperial influence in the Adriatic (868-886).

Basil I. founded a dynasty which endured for nearly two hundred years. The period beginning with the accession of Leo III. is considered by Finlay as being the true "Byzantine" epoch. Its internal features were great prosperity and increase in wealth, and a strong moral revival in society during the



Painted specially for this work

THE TRIUMPH OF IRENE.

[By H. M. Burton.]

Constantine VI., great-grandson of Leo III., was the last of the Isaurian line. He was only ten years old at his accession, and his ambitious mother Irene became regent. Later when he endeavoured to assert himself she plotted against him, deposing and then blinding him. She celebrated her pre-eminence by a triumphal procession, in which the horses of her car were led by nobles.

Iconoclastic period, which did not die out for a considerable time. The administration was systematically and vigorously carried out, and despite occasional arbitrary acts, the ordinary rule of the law was maintained in the empire, alone of all the countries of Europe and Western Asia. The Slavs and other immigrants were steadily drawn within the pale of Imperial governance, and "Byzantine" commerce flooded the Mediterranean. The anarchy and chronic warfare elsewhere drove trade and industry into the one state where life and property were secure under the protection of powerful safeguards. The defensive services were strong, excellently organized and trained, and usually well commanded.

The dark shade in an otherwise bright picture was that during the ninth century the hardy freeholding agricultural class, which had come into existence during the Heracliad period, began again to decline, partly owing to economic causes, partly because of ill-advised legislation, which again bound the cultivators to the soil. The land commenced to fall into the hands of great property owners, and the free peasantry steadily dwindled. The emperors did their utmost to protect the small farmers against the



Painted specially for this work

THE HEAD OF NICEPHORUS I. BROUGHT TO KHAN KRÚM.

After a short and inglorious reign of five years the unnatural Irene was deposed and imprisoned by her Grand Treasurer, Nicephorus I., a man of Arab descent, who proved a strong and able, though unfortunate ruler. He was eventually defeated in 811 whilst invading Bulgaria. Krúm had been driven to seek for terms of peace, but Nicephorus allowed himself to be surprised in a night attack, and was slain with a large part of his army. His head was brought to the ferocious Krúm, who made the skull into a drinking-cup.

[By H. M. Burton.]



By permission of "The Sphere."

KHAN KRÚM OF BULGARIA

[Painted by V. Antonoff.]

Khan Krúm was one of the most terrible enemies of the Roman Empire in the East, and beyond doubt one of the most savage and destructive foes that civilization has ever had. His ravages extended over all South-Eastern Europe. But after a career of almost unbroken success he died as he was preparing to besiege Constantinople.

encroachments of the great land-owners, but in vain. For a time this decline of the rural population did not greatly affect the state, being offset by the prosperity due to vast and world-wide commerce. But, when the maritime states of Italy began to compete with the Greeks for the Mediterranean commerce during the eleventh and twelfth centuries, the latter, hampered by restrictions and heavy duties, fell out of the race; and thenceforth the strength of the empire steadily decayed.

Ecclesiastically the main feature of the period 717-1028 is the steady drifting apart of the Eastern and Western Churches. The Iconoclastic controversy did much to separate them. The final reaction to Orthodoxy of the East during the regency of Theodora, mother of Michael the Drunkard, did not quell the antagonism between the Patriarchs of Constantinople and the Popes of Rome, who by the coronation of Charles the Great as emperor in 800 had definitely taken up an independent position.

In foreign politics the earlier part of the period was generally characterized by a policy of defence and consolidation. Certain outlying and non-paying possessions—such as Ravenna—were allowed to fall away unheeded, and the Imperial government declined to waste troops in attempting to recover them. Sicily and Crete, however, were wrenched away by force during a time of trouble. On the other hand, Asia Minor was defended with success, and the attacks of the fierce Bulgars, destructive as they were, did not shake the Imperial dominion in Europe, and were finally checked by internal weakness and the harassing of other barbarian peoples. It was Basil I. who began the period of territorial extension by conquering southern Italy from the Saracens who had overrun it, and by attaching the Slavs of Dalmatia to Imperial rule. His successor, Leo VI. (886-912), was a weak literary dilettante, ruled by worthless favourites, but, though they allowed Thessalonica to be sacked by a mere chance raid of Saracen pirates, the Asiatic border was steadily, if slowly, advancing. Leo's brother Alexander reigned but a year, and his son Constantine "Porphyrogenitos," who followed Alexander, was for more than twenty years under the tutelage of a strong usurper, Romanus Lecapenos. Romanus I. was hard pressed by Simeon, the greatest of the earlier Bulgar kings, and obliged to conclude a disadvantageous treaty; but Simeon did not long survive. With his death the greatness of Bulgaria died away, and it became subservient to the empire. Romanus's great general Johannes Kurkuas repeatedly defeated the Saracens and enlarged the Imperial territory in Asia. In 941 an attack by sea of the Russians, who now, under the lead of fierce Vikings from Scandinavia, formed a powerful state on the Dnieper, was beaten off with terrific slaughter. Romanus might have died on the throne but for his ill-conditioned sons, who deposed him. But they were, in their turn, overthrown by a popular tumult; and

Constantine Porphyrogenitos came to his own, to reign, generally in peace and not ingloriously, for fifteen years (944-959).

Under Constantine's son, Romanus II., the great general Nicephorus Phokas reconquered Crete and invaded Syria. The sudden death of his master made him Regent for the youthful Emperors Basil II. and Constantine IX.; and he carried forward as emperor the designs which he had formed as general, reconquering Cyprus and Cilicia. In 969 he was assassinated by his nephew and rival, Johannes Tzimiskes, who proved a greater conqueror than his uncle. By him Syria was overrun, Baghdad threatened, and a tremendous overthrow inflicted on the Russians who, led by the fierce warrior Sviatoslav, endeavoured to attack the empire by land (A.D. 970-971).

Johannes I. died in 976. For several years thereafter the government was mainly conducted by the President of the Senate, Basil Lecapenos, an illegitimate son of Romanus I. In Europe Bulgaria, which had been partly annexed and reduced to impotence by Johannes I., revived under a vigorous warrior-king, named Samuel. In 986 the young Basil II. suddenly changed from a voluptuary into a great warrior and statesman—a monk into the bargain. His first attack on Samuel was repulsed, but he put down a great revolt under the general Bardas Phokas, deprived Basil Lecapenos of his offices and wealth, and set himself with fierce energy to restore the empire. He made thirty campaigns, moving incessantly from frontier to frontier as occasion required. By 1018 the new Bulgarian Empire had been trampled out of existence by Basil's victories, the heart taken from its warriors by such deeds as the emperor's blinding of fifteen thousand prisoners after the battle of Kleidion in 1014. The greater part of what are



From the painting]

[By Valentin, R.A.]

THE CHOICE OF THEOPHILUS.

Theophilus chose his second wife Theodora at a great "bride-show" arranged for him by his stepmother, Euphrosyne. It is uncertain if this was before or after his accession. He passed over the poetess Kasia, who angered him by her keen repartee, and chose the demure Theodora. She was an "Iconodule"—image worshipper—and as regent after her husband's death reversed his policy

now Bulgaria, Servia and Bosnia formed the permanent trophy of Basil's Bulgarian wars, while in Asia he annexed various frontier districts, and assured the vassalage of the Christian states of the Caucasus. Internally he administered his dominions with stern justice, and steadily sought to protect and revive the dwindling peasantry. He died in 1025, still projecting new conquests, and leaving an empire extended on every side, a vast and victorious army, and an overflowing treasury to his weak brother Constantine IX.

The period 1025-1071 was a time of indolence and ease such as often, in countries where the government is not affected or controlled by free public opinion, follows an epoch of strenuous effort. Basil's successors were at first the husbands of Constantine IX.'s dissolute daughter Zoë, and then sundry military rulers, chosen by nobles or widowed empresses. Some of them were able men, but internal problems were neglected just when they needed drastic attention. The empire therefore slowly decayed



Painted specially for this work

BASIL I. BREAKING A WILD HORSE.

[By L. Mosley.]

Theophilus was succeeded by his son Michael III., and the latter's chief favourite was a certain Basil, who had attracted his attention by his feats in horse-breaking, and also by his hard drinking. He eventually made him his colleague on the throne. Basil callously murdered his wretched benefactor and became sole ruler—strangely enough, an excellent one.

from within, while from without it was attacked by the most terrible of its foes, who were eventually to destroy it—the savage Turks. The Normans, under Robert Guiscard, conquered southern Italy; the Serbs revolted, and though Armenia was finally added to the empire, this availed nothing to form a barrier against the Turks. The competition of the Italians in Mediterranean commerce grew keener; with declining prosperity the pressure of taxation became grievous to be borne. To crown all, an unwise emperor, Constantine XI. (Dukas), truckled to a selfish bureaucracy in starving and reducing the defensive services, so that when the Turks began to press hard on the eastern frontier, there was no effective army to oppose them. A brave soldier, Romanus IV., succeeding to the throne through his marriage with the widow of Constantine XI., made a gallant attempt to curb the desolating raids of the fast-moving hordes of Turkish horse-bowmen. At first, despite his crippled army, he met with some success; but in 1071 he sustained a crushing and ruinous defeat at the hands of the Seljuk Sultan Alp Arslan near Manzikert



Painted specially for this work

DEFEAT OF THE RUSSIANS BY ADMIRAL THEOPHANES.

In the year 941 the Russians, now formed into a strong state under Viking kings on the River Dnieper, attacked Constantinople with a flotilla of thousands of barges carrying a great host of savage warriors. The East Roman navy was away in the Levant, and the Admiral Theophanes, the Patrician, could only muster fifteen ships. Nevertheless, the Russians were utterly defeated, hundreds of their ships being destroyed by the terrible Greek fire.

[By Allan Stewart.]



Painted specially for this work]

[By L. Mouley.

THE INTERVIEW BETWEEN JOHANNES I. AND SVIATOSLAV.

Sviatoslav, son of the Russian King Igor, attacked the Eastern Empire by land in 972. He was utterly defeated by the great warrior-emperor, Johannes I.—"Tchemchkik" (Little Red-Boot) and allowed to depart on condition of never again molesting the empire. Before marching away he had an interview with his conqueror outside Drstr, now Siliatria.

in Armenia. He was himself taken prisoner, and when released on ransom, was blinded by his rivals of the House of Dukas. For ten years there was constant civil war; and meanwhile the Seljuks spread all over Asia Minor, until they established their headquarters at Nicaea, almost on the Propontis, and only sixty miles from Constantinople. It was not until 1081, when matters had progressed too far ever to be repaired, that an able young general, Alexius Comnenos, succeeded in seizing the reins of power.

The battle of Manazkert was undoubtedly one of the decisive contests of the world's history. With it the great days of the Eastern Empire departed never to return, though for a while some appearance of strength and splendour was restored to the shaken fabric by the House of Comnenos. At first Alexius I. hardly held his own in Europe, being fiercely attacked by Guiscard and his Normans; but after various alternations of fortune he succeeded in repulsing them, and in clearing the Balkanic provinces of the Pechenegs, a savage Tartar tribe, who next invaded them. Meanwhile his diplomacy, combined with general indignation in Europe at the brutality of the Turks towards pilgrims to Jerusalem, produced the First Crusade, and in 1095 European warriors began to stream through the empire. Alexius, a subtle diplomatist, perhaps the first ruler of the Roman East to whom the epithet "Byzantine" in its unsavoury sense can be justly applied, did more harm than good to his cause by his shifts and insincere blandishments; but as the Westerners relieved the pressure upon him, he was able to recover Western Asia Minor, and to some extent to reorganize it. He next severely defeated the Normans, now under Guiscard's son Bohemund; and ended his wars in 1116 by repulsing an attempted fresh advance of the Seljuks. His brave and just son, Johannes II. (1118-1143), greatly strengthened and extended the Imperial dominion in Asia Minor, reduced the crusading state of Antioch to vassalage, defeated the Serbs and Hungarians, and carried out the internal administration with a care and economy that it was

never again to know. Johannes was perhaps the best of all the Roman Emperors. His grateful people called him "Kalo-Johannes" ("Fair John").

Manuel I., Johannes' son (1143-1180), undid all that his father had achieved by grinding his subjects to the dust by taxation, and wasting the proceeds in war and ostentation. He was generally successful in his wars, and at his death Hungary was subservient, Venice defeated, and Servia and Croatia were once more directly subject to the empire. But internally all was in disorder, and the once mighty empire was a mere whitened sepulchre, its outward appearance of imposing splendour, and the renown of its warrior-emperors, ill concealing the growing poverty and the almost complete disappearance of the free peasantry. The last Comnenos, Andronicus I., a wicked but able man, made a determined attempt to reform the administration, but was murdered; and under his worthless successors, Isaac and Alexius Angelos, decay proceeded apace. The Bulgarians rose in rebellion, and succeeded in establishing their independence. The revenues were squandered upon festivities and debaucheries. The army fell to pieces; the navy rotted at its moorings; and Venice, which had long been hostile and was watching the decline of its great commercial rival, saw her chance. A son of Isaac Angelos, who had been deposed by Alexius, appeared at Venice, asking for assistance. By the unscrupulous machinations of Doge Dandolo, a host of intending Crusaders was induced to turn its arms against Constantinople. The attack fell like a thunderbolt; the capital was defended only by a few unpaid and mutinous mercenaries; the fleet was non-existent. Constantinople was occupied by the invaders, who enthroned their protégé, Alexius IV., but their insolence caused riots to break out; those of them who were within the walls were massacred, and a brave and unscrupulous official, Alexius Dukas, seized the throne. But he was without resources; and in April, 1204, the great city was stormed by the Venetians and Westerners, sacked from



Painted specially for this work

[By J. H. Valda.]

BASIL II. AT THE BATTLE NEAR SETANIA.

The life-work of Basil II. was the reconquest of the Balkania inland, a task which occupied him for thirty-two years. He treated his foes as enemies of mankind, slaughtering or blinding them when captured. The result was that he inspired the survivors with such dread that his mere appearance turned defeat into victory at a battle in 1017.

end to end in a turmoil of horrors that lasted for three days, for the most part burned to the ground, and left in a state of ruin from which it has never truly recovered.

The destruction of Constantinople to all intents and purposes ended the Roman Empire in the East. True, all over the territory which still owned its sway, independent states sprang up to fight for existence with the hated Westerners; and the so-called Latin Empire, established among the smoking ruins of the Queen-City, was a mere shadow of a kingdom. During its sordid existence of fifty-seven years it descended to the lowest depths of ignominy. But the mischief could never be undone. In Asia a strong state, with its capital at Nicaea, was shaped out of the ruins of the empire by the gallant Theodore Lascaris and his son-in-law, Johannes Dukas Vataces. But the warfare among the various sections of the old Imperial domain and the Westerners and Venetians who occupied parts of it, combined with



Painted specially for this work

[By J. A. Bryan.]

A NORMAN KNIGHT USURPS THE THRONE OF ALEXIUS I

After the death of Basil II, decline set in, until it was checked by a brave and cunning emperor, Alexius I. He had much difficulty in dealing with the fierce and barbarous "Franks," and on one occasion while he was greeting a baron, another coolly sat down on the vacant throne!

Turkish and Bulgarian attacks, finally wrecked the Romano-Hellenic social system. When in 1261 Michael VIII., the successor of the Lascarids at Nicaea, succeeded once more in entering ruined and derelict Constantinople, the Turks were already beginning the advance which was to sweep away the last remnants of Roman dominion in the Aegean lands.

The salient feature of the Roman Empire in the East is its astonishing longevity. While in the West the old civilized order was shattered, it lasted unbroken in the East for more than eight centuries. To describe the Eastern Empire as weak is merely childish. Certainly there was much in its civilization that was vicious; it lacked at the outset true moral elevation, and in the lack of free public opinion Christianity failed to supply the necessary stimulus. But the fact remains that for eight hundred years the empire endured, amid the most tremendous shocks and convulsions; and preserved civilization, laws, commerce, art and literature, unbroken and little changed, despite the tempests which raged



Painted specially for this work

ANNA COMNENA DICTATING THE "ALEXIAD."

Anna Comnena was the daughter of the great Emperor Alexius I. At his death she made an attempt to seize the throne and oust her good and gallant brother Johannes II. He did not pursue his sister, but on the death of her husband she retired to a convent, where she wrote a history of her father—the "Alexiad." It is partial and inflated in tone, but not apparently deliberately untruthful, and it is remarkable as almost the only historical work composed by a woman until modern times.

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]



Painted specially for this work]

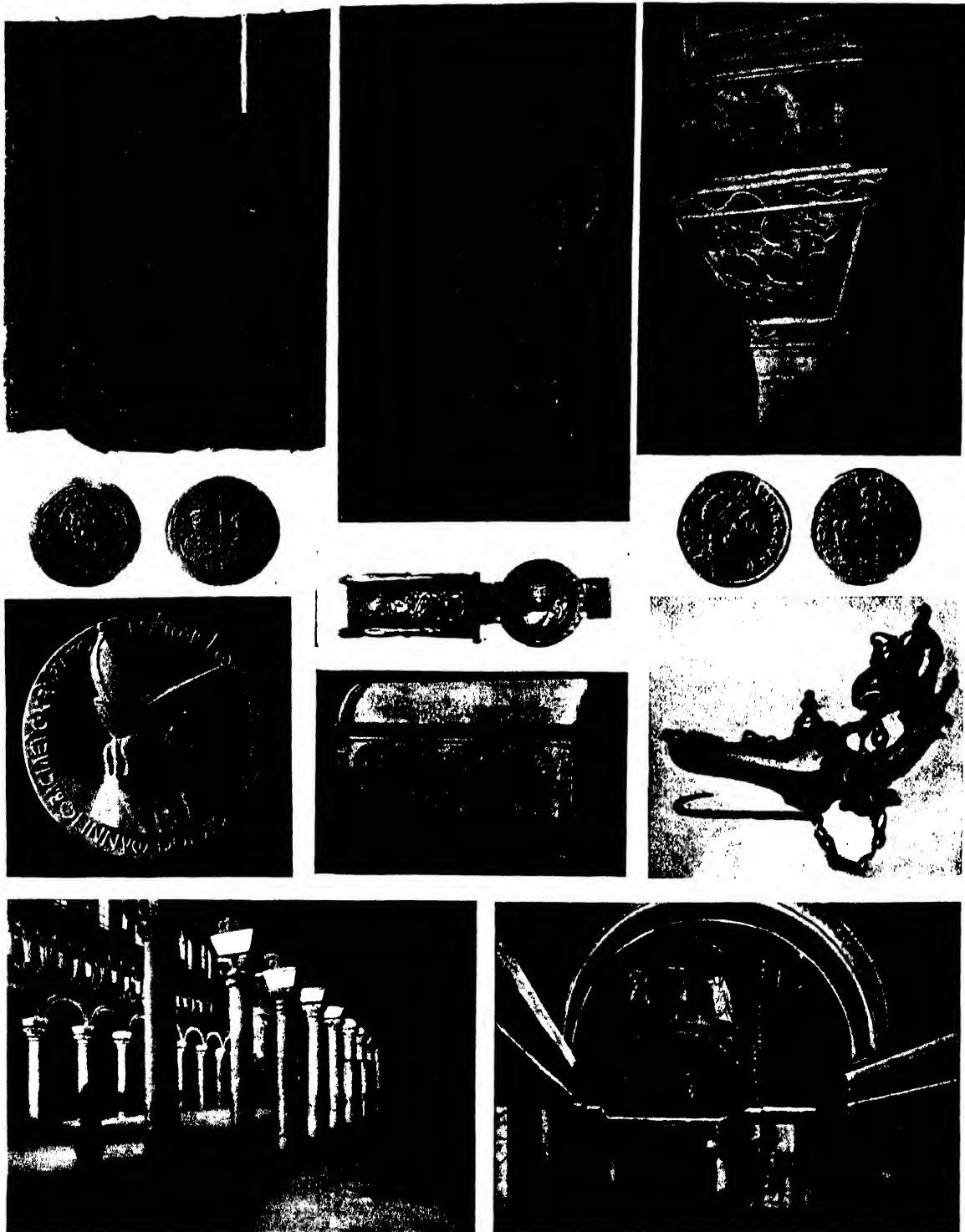
MANUEL I. AFTER HIS DEFEAT AT MYRIOKEPHALON.

[By A. Kemp Tolley.

Manuel I., son of Johannes II., was a bad ruler but a great warrior. In 1176 he was, owing to his foolhardiness, defeated by the Turks. After the battle he asked for water, but dropped it when he saw it was tinged with blood. An officer called out: "Drink, Emperor! All your life you have batten on your people's blood!"

around. And again and again, when the guard of the great fortress was weakened from within, and its ramparts broken through from without, there appeared a hero to hurl back the assailants. Mighty enemies tried their fortune at moments of weakness—Huns, Persians, Avars, Bulgars, and Arabs, the fiercest, most determined, most dangerous of all. All alike, after success at the outset, had the same fortune, and, like the Spanish galleons which surrounded the *Revenge* in the great sea-fight off Flores, they "drew back with their dead and their shame," from the fortress that was guarded by Heraclius and Constantine the Bearded, Leo the Image-breaker and Basil the Bulgar-slayer. Not until 1071 was an enemy found who, favoured by circumstances, was able to strike a fatal blow.

The long line of "Byzantine" emperors includes, probably, a larger proportion of able rulers than any other in the world's history. But this is not all. The fortunes of the empire rose and fell as the emperor used his vast power well or ill; but the state itself and its deeply-rooted civilized society existed and endured independently of him; and the death of an able ruler at a terrible crisis (as in 641) did not bring ruin. In one word, the empire, with all its faults and vices, was a great civilized state amid a crowd of barbarous ones, and it endured so long because it possessed the elements of permanence. Civilization might decline amid constant warfare and devastation, but it died not, and could of itself revive. The old Greek literary tradition survived, and if vigour and taste often declined, they never entirely died out, and sometimes attained a respectable, if not high standard. It must be remembered that during the greater part of its existence the empire was ever waging defensive war, and that its best blood was in the ranks of the administrative and defensive services. Art and literature were left to those second-rate persons who were not needed for more vitally necessary matters. The products of



REPRESENTATIVE BYZANTINE ART.

Reading from left to right: Silk brocade of the tenth century, showing the typical Byzantine parrot design within a medallion (Victoria and Albert Museum); part of carved ivory diptych of a Roman consul of 518; one of the capitals of the Church of San Vitale at Ravenna, built by Justinian I. about 547; coins of Constantine IX. and Basil II.; gold bracelet with bust of the Virgin in medallion (British Museum); coin of Constantine the Great (obverse and reverse), Late Roman period; the portrait medallion of John Palaeologos, by Pisano, A.D. 1439; sarcophagus in the Church of St. Apollinare in Classe, Ravenna; bronze lamp, fifth century (British Museum); arcades of the Church of St. Apollinare Nuovo at Ravenna, ninth or tenth century, showing the long frieze of mosaic; mausoleum of Galla Placidia at Ravenna, built in the fifth century.

(Coins, brocade, lamp and bracelet reproduced from "The Byzantine Empire," by E. Foard, by permission of the publishers, Messrs. A. & C. Black.

(Other photographs by Alinari and ivory by A. Giraudon.)



Painted specially for this work

THE STORMING OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY THE VENETIANS.

[By H. M. Burton.]

In 1204 a host of Venetians and land pirates from the West who called themselves Crusaders stormed Constantinople. The Venetians carried the low sea-wall by running gangway bridges on to it from the masts of galleys coupled together. The horde then sacked the great city and almost completely destroyed it.

both, also, have suffered fearfully at the destructive hands of barbarians ; of many works we possess but the record. Mimetic art was " cribbed, cabined and confined " by Christian prejudices ; but " Byzantine " genius achieved wonders in architecture. In one grand instance it is doubtful if its results have ever been surpassed. It is a matter of history that the revival of learning in Western Europe was directly due to the dispersal over it of treasures of literature which were saved from the sack of Constantinople, and, later, of educated Greeks fleeing before the destroying advance of the Turks. By 1453 the West had progressed sufficiently to be able to receive and appreciate teachers and books ; but the results might have been far greater had the havoc been less. Largely owing to its own misdeeds, the West lost much that was instructive and valuable in Greek literature. It may perhaps be urged that had East Roman intellectual society possessed any aggressive energy the revival of learning might have begun much earlier ; but after the death of Charles the Great there was no place for literature in the chaotic West. It is at any rate certain that the Arabs merely borrowed and translated from the empire ; and there is good evidence that their scientific works were often directed by Byzantine scholars.

In architecture Byzantine influence was for long centuries supreme in the West. Charles the Great built on Byzantine models. From Hexham and Jarrow to the Pyrenees and the Riviera, from the shores of the Atlantic to the centre of Germany, one finds everywhere Byzantine, or, as we prefer to say, " Romanesque " churches. Of Italy it is not necessary to speak.

The empire developed and improved its magnificent bequest of Roman law ; and for eight centuries, amid misery and confusion, it remained the one state where the law was efficiently administered and obeyed. Finally, and most important of all, it was in the Middle Ages the one realm in which moral restraints had influence. In the words of Finlay : " The superior moral tone of society in the Byzantine Empire was one of the great causes of its long duration ; it was its true conservative principle."

CHAPTER XIII

THE FRENCH. By ARTHUR HASSALL, M.A.

THE origin of the earliest inhabitants of the country which is now known as France, like the origin of the earliest man, is of interest to the student of ethnology, but is hidden in obscurity. The weapons and ornaments found in *tumuli* and river-courses, together with sculptures and drawings found in caves, do not give the historian any adequate clue to the character of the extinct tribes whose place was taken by the Basques and Ligurians. The former were a short, dark, tenacious people, who were probably gradually driven from Spain and settled in the Pyrenees and in the country between the Bay of Biscay and the Mediterranean.

The Ligurians seem to have occupied the South of France, especially in the valley of the Rhone, and were eventually forced to yield in the sixth century to the Celts or Gauls, who, advancing in hordes from the region of the Danube, established an empire in Gaul, which remained more or less undisturbed till the Roman conquest. This Celtic empire, which was set up in "the plains of the Saone, the Seine and the Loire as far as the Spanish border," apparently entered upon a period of disintegration in the fifth century, being especially weakened by the establishment of the Belgae (a Celtic race) in the north-east corner of Gaul.

Moreover, in the second century they suffered from encroachments in Southern Gaul, for in 122-3 B.C. Caius Sextius founded the town Aquae Sextiae, now known as Aix-in-Provence, and a little later the Latins occupied Narbonne. Gradually the whole district adjoining the Rhone became peopled by settlers sent from Italy; it received the name of Gallia Narbonensis, being also known as Gallia Braccata, and as time went on embraced in addition to its earlier conquests the greater part of Roussillon and Languedoc. In the year 60 B.C. the Ædui, a Gallic tribe allied with the Romans of Gallia Narbonensis, was overthrown in two battles by an army of Teutons under Ariovistus, who established themselves on the borders of the Roman province. The opportunity had now come for Julius Caesar, pro-consul in 59 B.C., to begin his conquest of Gaul, and after eight years of warfare, during which he reduced Normandy and Brittany, he overthrew Vercingetorix at Alesia in the year 50 B.C. Gaul thus became a Roman province, and until the fall of the Roman Empire her history in many respects resembles that of Italy. She



From a painting by F. Cormon.]

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

NEOLITHIC MAN.

Neolithic man spent his time hunting and fishing. His dress was of skins and his dwellings rude mud huts or caves. His ordinary weapons of offence and defence were fashioned of wood, bone, and stone, especially flint.

experienced a complete material and political transformation, and, like the rest of the empire, she suffered from general apathy and lassitude.

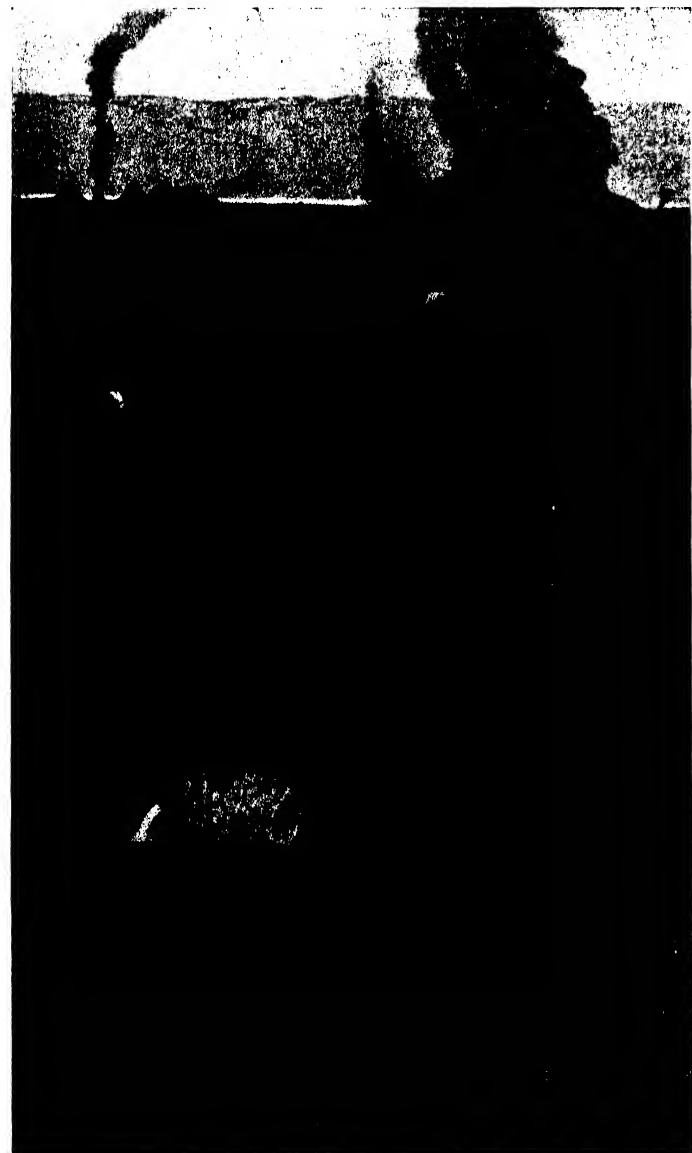
From this condition of political and intellectual weakness she was roused by the triumph of Christianity throughout the land and by the barbarian invasions. Christianity, which had made its

appearance in Gaul in the first century, rapidly spread, and though it suffered from the persecutions of Aurelian and Diocletian, its branches had extended all over Gaul before the middle of the third century. While Christianity was checking the evil effects of Gallo-Roman civilization, the country was being stirred to its depths by the continuous attacks of the barbarians on its frontiers. These attacks could not be resisted successfully, and during the centuries immediately preceding the fall of the empire in 476 A.D. the Teutonic tribes were filtering into Gaul and gradually becoming part of the Roman population.

THE RISE AND FALL OF THE CARLOVINGIANS

At the close of the fifth century Gaul was practically divided between three branches of the Teutonic races—the Burgundians, the Visigoths and the Franks. Of these the Burgundians and the Visigoths gradually succumbed to the influence of the civilized inhabitants whom they found in the territories which they conquered, and, in consequence, never succeeded in holding their own against the advance of the Franks.

Issuing forth from the country between the Oder and the Vistula, and suffering severe defeats in what is now Belgium in 435 and 436, the Burgundians established themselves in the country between the Lake of Geneva, the Rhone and the Durance—*i.e.*, in Savoy—about the year 443. On the invasion of Gaul by the Hun Attila, they fought successfully under Aetius and in conjunction with the Franks and the Visigoths in the great battle at Orleans, and Attila, defeated, was forced to retire



From a painting by F. Cormon.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

THE AGE OF BRONZE AND IRON.

Men of the Bronze Age had a moderate degree of civilization. They cultivated the land, and so obtained their food from this source as well as from hunting and fishing. Weaving was learnt, and tin and copper mixed to form the new metal bronze. The art of the period showed great advance on the previous age, especially the pottery, which was much ornamented.

eastwards, and died in Pannonia in 453. The victory over the Huns did not, however, save the Roman Empire, which came to an end in 476.

After many years of struggle with the advancing Franks, the Visigoths established themselves in Languedoc and Provence, where they rapidly fell under the influence of the old Roman population, while the Burgundians, masters of the valley of the Rhone, also yielded to the same Roman influences.



Painted specially for this work

by J. H. Valida

THE CAPTURE OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY CRUSADERS

The Crusaders had for a long while a grudge against the Eastern Empire, as they regarded the whole of the Levant as lost provinces of Italy. The Venetians, too, had a grievance owing to restrictions which Alexius III. had imposed on their trade with Constantinople, and the fact that a colony of Venetian merchants at Constantinople had been destroyed in 1171. The sack of the city was one of the most shameful incidents in history, perpetrated as it was by Crusaders. Women and children were outraged and then murdered, and churches were pillaged and destroyed by the furious opponents of the Orthodox Church.

Thus neither the Visigoths nor the Burgundians were able to resist the steadily advancing Franks, who were constantly reinforced by fresh recruits from Germany, and were therefore saved from falling under the influence of the decaying Roman civilization. The Franks, unlike the Visigoths and Burgundians, were not a single tribe: they were a number of groups of which the chief were the Salians and Ripuarians, and even these were each composed of various sections. Clovis, for instance, was king of one of the many tribes of the Salian Franks. These Franks were in a more advantageous position for extending their conquests than were the Visigoths or Burgundians, both of whom had settled down and were surrounded by peoples who had been thoroughly impregnated with the Roman civilization. The Franks, as it were, rested on Germany, and were the advance guard of a vast horde which kept pressing westwards as the Roman Empire slowly sank.

In 481, Clovis, on the death of his father, became one of the kings of the Salian Franks. He soon showed that he possessed abilities denied to his contemporaries. Near Soissons he defeated Syagrius, with the result that the Frank domination soon stretched as far as the Loire. Not long after this victory the marriage of Clovis to Clotilde took place. The queen embraced Christianity, but it was not till after a great victory over a German tribe at Tolbiac that he consented to be baptized. The remainder of the reign saw the defeats of the Burgundians and the Visigoths at the hands of Clovis, who had fixed his residence at Paris. In 511 he died, and for many years after his death the history of the lands which later formed France is little else but a chronology of struggles at home and of confusion in the relations of Church and State. After the death of Brunhildis, queen of Austrasia, in 613, the power of the Merovingian kings declined, and with its decline the influence of the lay and ecclesiastical aristocracy increased. As the century proceeded the decadence of the Merovingians became more pronounced than ever, and the decline of their power more rapid. A succession of phantom kings necessitated the advent of more capable rulers, and the appearance of Pépin d'Héristal, who by the battle of Testry in 687 became master of France, and Charles Martel was fully justified. Soon after the death of Charles Martel, so famous for his victory over the Saracens in 732, his son Pépin accepted, in 747, the resignation of Carloman, the Merovingian, who retired to a monastery. In 751 Pépin carried out



From a painting by F. Cormon.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

CELTIC POTTERY WORKERS.

The pottery which the Celtic craftsmen made belongs to the period known as the Bronze Age. They exercised considerable skill in their work, the most successful being the urns used for funeral purposes. These were often of considerable size and highly ornamented, but the domestic pottery was quite simple in appearance.

a *coup d'état*. Childeric III., the last of the Merovingian kings, was consigned to a convent, and Pépin was crowned king.

Strengthened by his alliance with the Papacy, which itself derived no small advantage from its close connection with the Carolingians, Pépin was able to prepare the way for the establishment of the empire of Charles the Great. In 768 Pépin died, and in 771 Charles, on the death of his brother, became sole king of the Franks, and continued the wars of his predecessors in all directions. He conquered Aquitaine, and Spain as far as the Ebro. In 773 two Frankish armies invaded Italy. In 774 the kingdom of the Lombards fell, and Charles had himself proclaimed the successor of Didier, the last

Lombard king. He was now master of Italy, and the Saracens, Greeks, and Lombards of Beneventum found themselves in contact with a new and powerful adversary.

From this time till his proclamation as emperor in 800, Charles was rarely at peace. In 778 his forces suffered a temporary defeat at Roncesvalles, and Roland, warden of the march, was killed. However, Charles held the country as far as the Ebro—the Spanish march. In 786 he subdued the remnant of the Lombards in the south of Italy, while he was already engaged in extending his conquest in Germany, where, by 785, he had overcome the Saxons, though his armies had still to put down occasional risings till the opening years of the ninth century. During these years he annexed Bavaria, subdued the Avars, and forced the tribes who lived between the Saale and the Elbe to recognize his supremacy. He was equally successful in the north of Germany, and at Hamburg was erected a strong fort.

Meanwhile his relations with the Papacy have more than ordinary interest. Between the Carolingians and the Papacy friendly relations



From the painting]

THE IRON AGE IN FRANCE.

[By F. Cormon.

The discovery of iron as the metal most suitable for cutting-implements and weapons occurred roughly speaking about B.C. 1000, when iron gradually superseded bronze. Its use spread from the south-east of Europe, reaching the north about five hundred years later. A hunter had only the most elementary weapon, which was a long spear.

had always existed, and Pépin had been given the title of Patriarch. The cities of the Exarchate had been bestowed on the Papacy by Pépin, and thus the Papal State had been created. But Pope Leo III. found himself threatened by a revolution, and betook himself to Charles at Paderborn.

In the autumn of 800 Charles himself arrived in Rome, and on Christmas Day he was crowned by the Pope as "Charles the Augustus, crowned of God, the great and pacific Emperor." Thus was established the Holy Roman Empire, which passed through many vicissitudes till 1806, when it came to an end. Before his death, in 814, Charles had established a government which only remained intact during his lifetime. His *missi dominici* controlled in most thorough fashion the provincial administration. They maintained justice, they watched over the clergy, they collected the royal revenue. Their duties were, indeed, of a most multifarious character. Alongside of this hierarchy of officials must be

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
The immigration of Greeks.	B.C. c. 600	A Greek colony was founded at Massalia (Marseilles) by Ionian Greeks from Phocaea in Asia Minor. The Carthaginians who had been accustomed to trade with the natives disputed the settlement of the Greeks in a naval warfare. It is very possible that the Phoenicians had settled at Marseilles before the Greeks. Under the Greeks Massalia grew vastly in importance both in point of commerce and of learning, and the school of Massalia is said to have been the equal of Athens and Alexandria. Civilizing influences were apparent in many ways. The Greeks brought the use of money to the Gauls and they also introduced important items of husbandry, such as the cultivation of the grape-vine and olive trees. The Government was in effect that of a small republic.
Celtic influences.		The name of Galli (Gauls) was given by the Romans to all those peoples who called themselves Celts, and the name Gallia (Gaul) signified the country inhabited by Celtic peoples. The Celts of Europe, who were distributed not only over Gaul, but also Great Britain, Germany, the course of the Danube almost from its source to the Black Sea, Spain and the north of Italy, united in one great and powerful state. They were ruled over by a Biturician king named Ambigatus, and about this time Segovius and Bellovisus, nephews of Ambigatus, led armies through Switzerland over the Brenner and by way of the maritime Alps to invade Italy.
Invasion of Italy by Gauls.	c. 400	The next invasion of Italy by the Gauls was shortly before 400 B.C. They came in large numbers and in a few years the power of the Etruscans in north Italy was completely broken. Italy was invaded as far south as Rome, which city was actually taken in 390 B.C. The Romans paid a high ransom to the Gauls, who then retired from the city. Gauls continued, however, to hold northern Italy and were a source of danger until the Romans were strong enough to hurl them back.
German revolt.	283 278 218-201 191 154 124	The Germans rose in revolt against the Celts of Gaul and amongst other tribes who crossed the Rhine into Gaul were the Belgae. They subsequently emigrated in some numbers to Britain. Others of those tribes who revolted sailed by way of the Danube to Greece, Macedonia and Thrace, which countries they laid waste. Celts crossed the Bosphorus and invaded Asia Minor, where they settled in the country known from the time of their occupation as Galatia. The Second Punic War. Cisalpine Gauls enrol themselves in the army of Hannibal. Cisalpine Gaul is definitely conquered. War between the Massaliots and the Ligurians. The former seek the aid of the Romans, who appoint the General Flaminius as mediator, but the Ligurians reject him with insults. The Romans attack them for this and, after defeating them in battle, take part of their territory to give to the Massaliots. The Massaliots make a fresh appeal to the Romans in a war with the Salluvii, a people of mixed Gaulish and Ligurian origin. The Romans are victorious and the Consul Sextius garrisons Aquae Sextiae (Aix-en-Provence). The Allobroges and the Arverni try to drive out this garrison, but they are overwhelmed by the Consul Fabius Maximus and the Romans become masters of a new province in Gaul in 121 B.C.
The Roman Empire.	118 58 57 56 54 52 50 49 46	A "celenia" established by the Romans at Narbo. Caesar comes to Gaul as governor of Narbonensis. Caesar undertakes the conquest of Gaul. Operations against the Veneti, the seafaring natives of Brittany. Gauls rise against the Romans and the Eburones massacre a Roman corps. Caesar retaliates by annihilating the whole tribe. (d'Or). Revolt of the Arverni (Auvergne) under Vercingetorix. He is besieged by Caesar at Alesia (Alise, Cote d'Or). Caesar leaves Gaul. Marseilles—the last independent state of Gaul—annexed to Gallia Narbonensis, lost part of its territory for resisting Caesar, but remained a "free" city. (Narbonensis organized by Caesar. Rest of Gaul not really organized till after 31.) Vercingetorix executed in Rome.
Gaul under the Roman Empire.	40	Organization of Gaul by Augustus. Narbonensis receives different treatment from the rest of Gaul. The tribal system was dissolved and municipal system took its place. The chief feature was a "colonia" or "municipium" of Roman citizens with municipal government by a senate and magistrates, and ruling a dependant territory. The rest of Gaul was divided into three provinces, Belgica, Lugudunensis and Aquitania. The native tribes were left almost untouched, being allowed to manage their own affairs. Every tribe had a town as its centre, but this was no more than a place for marketing. The four provinces were ruled by governors from Rome. A proconsul, appointed annually by the Senate, ruled Narbonensis. The Emperor appointed "legati pro praetore" for the other provinces for various terms of office.
To the end of the Roman Dominion.	A.D. 48 258 268 273 277 285 301 407 419 451 500	Nobles of Gaul were granted the privilege of sitting in the Senate. Postumus, a provincial governor of Gaul, rules Gaul and Britain independent of Rome. Postumus is slain in a mutiny. Reunion of Gaul with the Roman Empire. Barbarians ravage the east of Gaul. The Alamanni overrun Alsace; 60,000 slain by Probus at Langres. Peasants of Gaul rise in revolt. Arbogastes, the Frank, becomes master general of the Roman army in Gaul. An invasion of Goths, Vandals and Franks from the east. Honorius gives lands to Wallia, chief of the Visigoths in south-west Gaul. [and Theodoric. Gaul invaded by Attila, the Hun. He is defeated near Chalons by the Roman-Gothic army under Aetius Visigoth kingdom reaches from the Loire and the Rhone to the south of Spain. Clovis, the Frank, has his kingdom about Cameracum and Tornacum (Cambrai and Tournay).
Accession of Clovis to accession of Pepin.	486 492 496 507 511 534 560 567 573 575 584 593 596 599 610 613 615 638 687 714 716-717 721 732 741	Clovis defeats Syagrius, Roman ruler of the district about Soissons. Clovis marries Clotilda, a Burgundian princess of orthodox faith. Conversion and baptism of Clovis. Clovis slays Alaric in battle near Poitiers. Death of Clovis at Paris. Burgundy annexed to the kingdom of the Franks. Marriage of Brunhildis to Sigibert. Sigibert is King of Austrasia (East Franks) and Chilperich King of Neustria (West Franks). War between Chilperich and Sigibert. Chilperich, the aggressor, is defeated. Assassination of Sigibert at the instance of Fredegundis, mistress of Chilperich. Chilperich assassinated at Chelles, near Paris. Fredegundis in supreme power on the death of Gunthram. Death of Childebert, King of Austrasia. Brunhildis becomes regent during the minority of Theodebert II. and Theoderic II. Rising of Austrasian nobles against Brunhildis. Brunhildis foments a quarrel between Theodebert and Theoderic. Theodebert is put to death and Brunhildis regains power. Austrasian nobles under Pepin of Landen rise against Brunhildis. She is captured and put to death. Great Council of Paris at which all fiefs were held to be irrevocable. Death of Dagobert. Pepin d'Heristal invades Neustria and gains a decisive victory at Testry. Death of Pepin. Charles Martel escapes from Cologne and defeats the Neustrians at Amblève and Vincy. [the Vienne. Saracens defeated by the Aquitanians at Toulouse. Saracen army routed by the Franks under Charles Martel in a battle at the confluence of the Clain and Death of Charles Martel at Cerisy-sur-Oise.

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY—continued

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Accession of Pepin le Bref to the Treaty of Verdun.	A.D.	Pepin proclaimed king at Soissons.
	751	Saracens surrender their capital Narbonne to Pepin.
	759	Defeat of Duke Waifer of Aquitania by Pepin. Aquitania is incorporated into the Carolingian Empire.
	767	Death of Pepin.
	768	Charlemagne succeeds his brother Carloman.
	771	Saxons under Witikind routed with great slaughter by Charlemagne.
	779	Aquitania constituted a Kingdom by Charlemagne in favour of his son Louis.
	781	Great Saxon insurrection under Witikind. Charlemagne massacres 4,500 captives.
	782	Submission of Witikind. He is baptized in the presence of Charlemagne.
	785	Subjection of Bavarians under Tassilo by Charlemagne.
	788	Conquest of the Avars. Franks masters of Western Pannonia.
	791	Baptism of Avar chiefs at Aix-la-Chapelle.
	796	Charlemagne crowned in St. Peter's at Rome on Christmas Day.
	800	Death of Charlemagne on 28th January. Accession of Louis I.
	814	Revolt of Bernard, King of Italy.
	818	Birth of the future emperor, Charles the Bald.
	823	Death of Louis I. Disastrous division of the Kingdom between his three sons, Lothaire, Pepin and Louis.
	840	
Treaty of Verdun to the accession of Hugh Capet.	843	Treaty of Verdun signed by the sons of Louis the Pious. Charles the Bald is King of Gaul west of the Scheldt, the Saône and the Meuse.
	852	Charles makes peace with Muhammed, Saracen ruler of Spain.
	875	Northmen take Rouen.
	885	Northmen besiege Paris under Rollo.
	912	The Duchy of Normandy is given to Rollo. He is converted and takes the name of Robert.
	922	Robert I., brother of Endes, crowned King of France by the nobles. Charles marches against him.
	923	Defeat of Charles at Soissons and death of Robert in battle. Rudolf of Burgundy succeeds him.
	929	Death of Charles the Simple.
	936	Louis IV., son of Charles the Simple, becomes King.
	945	Attempts on Normandy by Louis defeated. He is imprisoned by Hugh the Great.
	954	Death of Louis. His son Lothair succeeds him.
	956	Lothair and Hugh Capet invade Lorraine. Otto II. invades France with 60,000 men. He reaches Paris, but loses the greater part of his army in retreat.
	978	Death of Lothair. Louis V. succeeds him.
	986	
Accession of Hugh Capet to death of Louis VI.	987	Hugh Capet takes the throne on the death of Louis.
	988	Invasion of France by Charles of Lorraine.
	991	Charles is captured and imprisoned.
	996	Death of Hugh. Succession of his son Robert II.
	1010	Persecution of Jews, accused of inciting the infidels under Hakim, Caliph of Egypt, to destroy the Sepulchre at Jerusalem.
	1022	Manichaean heretics burned at Orleans.
	1028	Robert the Devil takes the ducal crown of Normandy.
	1031	Death of Robert and succession of Henry I.
	1033	Failure of Robert the Devil to invade England.
	1035	Death of Robert the Devil and succession of his son William the Bastard.
	1041	"Truce of God" proclaimed.
	1054	Victory of William over Eudes of Anjou at Mortemer.
	1060	Death of Henry and succession of Philip I.
	1066	Normans invade England under William the Bastard (commonly known as William the Conqueror). Battle of Hastings on October 14th. William crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas Day.
	1071	Philip defeated at Cassel by Robert the Frisian.
	1079	William's son Robert rebels against his father.
	1087	Death of William. Robert succeeds as Duke of Normandy and William Rufus as King of England.
	1090	Invasion of Normandy by William Rufus.
	1096	Ecclesiastical council of Clermont. First Crusade leaves France in 1096.
Accession of Louis VII. to death of Louis VIII.	1100	Death of William Rufus. Return of Robert to Normandy from the Crusade.
	1106	Henry captures Robert of Normandy at the Battle of Tinchebray. Normandy again becomes subject to England.
	1108	Death of Philip and accession of Louis VI.
	1109	War between England and France.
	1112	Rioting in the commune of Laon.
	1124	Renewal of war between England and France over Normandy, and peace is declared in 1129.
	1137	Death of Louis and succession of his son Louis VII.
	1140	Louis quarrels with the Papacy about the Archbishopric of Bourges.
	1144	Louis promises, on making peace with the Papacy, to undertake a Crusade. Anglo-Norman monarchy broken up. Geoffrey Plantagenet is Duke of Normandy, Count of Anjou, Maine and Touraine; Stephen, King of England and Count of Boulogne.
	1147	Second Crusade, in which Louis takes part.
	1154	Henry of Anjou is King of England.
	1180	Death of Louis. Philip II. becomes King.
	1204	Château Gaillard taken. Normandy and Brittany pass to Philip. John flies to England.
	1208	Crusade against the Albigenses commences. Carcassonne taken by Simon de Montfort.
	1214	Philip defeats an alliance of John of England, the Count of Flanders and Otto IV. at the Battle of Bouvines.
		Death of Philip Augustus and succession of Louis VIII.
Accession of Louis IX. to the Valois line.	1226	Death of Louis and succession of Louis IX. (Saint Louis).
	1242	Louis defeats Henry III. at Taillebourg.
	1248	Louis joins the Crusade. Damietta captured in 1249. Louis captured at Mansurah in 1250.
	1252	The Sorbonne founded by Robert de Sorbon.
	1270	Death of Louis IX. and accession of Philip III.
	1276	
	1285	
	1293	
Accession of Philip VI. to capture of Joan of Arc.	1310	
	1328	Succession of Philip VI. Beginning of the Hundred Years' War. Edward claims title as King of France in 1338.
	1340	French fleet defeated at Sluys. Accession of John II. in 1350.
	1364	Succession of Charles V.
	1365	Treaty of Guérande. John de Montfort assumes the dukedom of Brittany.
	1370	Sack of Limoges. The Limousin partly conquered by France.
	1380	Treaty between England and Brittany.
	1415	Defeat of French at Agincourt, and Rouen captured in 1419.
	1428	Siege of Orleans commenced. English defeated at Patay by Joan of Arc in 1429, and coronation of Charles at Rheims.
	1430	Joan of Arc captured at Compiègne by the Burgundians and sold to the Duke of Bedford.

placed the organization of the courts and also of the assemblies which had legislative functions. The instructions concerning the government of the empire are known as the Capitularies. Judicial assemblies were also organized, and in them a scale of punishments for various crimes was drawn up. Similarly the duties of military service were stated very clearly, and owing to the immense size of the empire these duties were very onerous. It must always, too, be remembered that education, the study of literature and of the fine arts was not forgotten, and the School of the Palace over which Alcuin presided, testified to the lively interest which the emperor took in the development of learning. Éginhard, the famous writer on the reign, was born in 770, and lived till 814. An Austrasian and an ecclesiastic, his "Life of Charles the Great" is invaluable, and with him must be named Angilbert, who wrote the "Life of Louis le Débonnaire," and many others.

At the time of Charles the Great's death the empire was apparently in a flourishing condition, but the destruction of the empire soon followed his death. His heir, Louis le Débonnaire, was crowned emperor at Rheims by Pope Stephen V., and in 816 a French writer discerns weakness in the conduct of Louis at the time of his coronation: "Par trois fois, il se prosterna de tout son corps devant le pontife. L'empereur ne confirmait plus le pape; le pape couronnait encore l'empereur; l'équilibre était rompu." It was not, however, by reason of any weakness of character that Louis handed over portions of his empire to his sons. Charles the Great had adopted a similar policy in 806, and Louis, in placing his son Pépin over Aquitaine and another son, Lewis, over Bavaria, merely followed the example of Charles, and had no intention of relaxing his rights over the empire.

The above arrangement — the Charter of Division, as it was called — was made at Worms; and at the same time Lothair, the eldest son of Louis, was associated with his father in the government of the northern portion of the empire, while Bernard, a half-brother of the emperor, who had been authorized to watch over Italy, stirred up a revolt, with the result that he was seized, punished, and died. From the year 817 Louis began to develop weakness, and his second marriage with Judith, daughter of Wolf, Count of Bavaria, was the cause of a series of misfortunes. She was a woman of considerable force of character; was determined that her son Charles the Bald, born in 823, should have a kingdom, and Louis agreed, in 824, to grant him Alemannia, which included Alsace, Rhetia, and part of Burgundy. From that moment confusion reigned in the empire; all the sons of Louis rebelled, and in 830 the emperor was deposed. Restored to power shortly afterwards, he was again deposed, and in 834 again restored. Before his death, in 840, he had divided his empire among his sons. A crisis had now arrived in the history of Europe which was of immense significance to the future of France. On June 20th, 841,



Painted by]

ST. DENIS PREACHING TO THE GAULS.

[P. V. Galland.

St. Denis, first bishop of Paris, came to Gaul in the reign of the Emperor Decius. At Paris he was very successful in his ministry, and through this he incurred the hatred of the Roman governor. He was, with two of his followers, tortured, and thereafter beheaded at the village of Catulliacus (St. Denis) about the year 272. St. Denis is regarded as the patron saint of France, and his festival is kept on the 9th of October.

was fought the battle of Fontanet, when Lothair, with an army of Saxons, Frisians, Italians, and others, was decisively beaten by his brothers Louis and Charles. One result of the battle was that the influence of the Church was thrown in the scale against Lothair, who, after much cogitation, concluded the Treaty of Verdun in August, 843, with his brothers. From 843 "there was one France and one Germany." In 800 there was in existence the great empire of Charles, which included many nationalities, and embraced modern France, Germany, Italy, and part of Spain. In 843 there were three kingdoms in

process of formation, and the Church alone remained to represent the unity of Charles the Great's empire.

Charles the Bald's kingdom to a great extent corresponded with France of the present day. But his hold on his kingdom was a slight one, for many portions of it were practically autonomous. Brittany, for example, under a line of national kings, refused to recognize Charles, and resisted all his efforts to reduce it to obedience. Louis, the son of Charles, married the daughter of the king of Brittany, who had successfully repelled the attacks of the Northmen. But with the latter's death Brittany became the prey to internal disorders, and was consequently quite unable to offer a successful resistance to the settlement of the Northmen in Normandy.

Charles was equally unsuccessful in his attempts to get actual possession of Aquitaine in 844. Toulouse closed its gates on his appearance, and its ruler, Pépin, in 850, allied with the Normans and Saracens against him. Temporary successes on the part of Charles did little to check the anarchy which reigned in Aquitaine, the only result of which was the inevitable growth of feudalism, which alone could remedy the



Painted by

[Puis de Chavannes.]

ST GENEVIÈVE BRINGS SUPPLIES TO PARIS

St. Geneviève, the patroness of Paris, gained an extraordinary reputation amongst the poor for the sanctity and kindliness of her life. During the invasion of Gaul by the Frankish king Childeric she brought supplies to the city of Paris when it was on the verge of starvation.

evils resulting from the weakness of the central power. That weakness was for the next half century or more enormously increased by the ravages of the Northmen. In 845 a band of these marauders had attacked Paris, and for many years France, like England, suffered from their onslaughts. In 875 Charles was crowned emperor by the Pope, and in 876 he received the iron crown of the Lombard kings. On October 11th, 877, while crossing the Alps, he died, leaving his kingdoms in a state of unprecedented disorder. His immediate successors had immense difficulties to cope with. Charles the Fat, king and emperor, could do little to check the invasions of the Northmen. In 886 they again besieged Paris, and it was quite evident that Charles was incapable of defending his subjects against these audacious pirates.

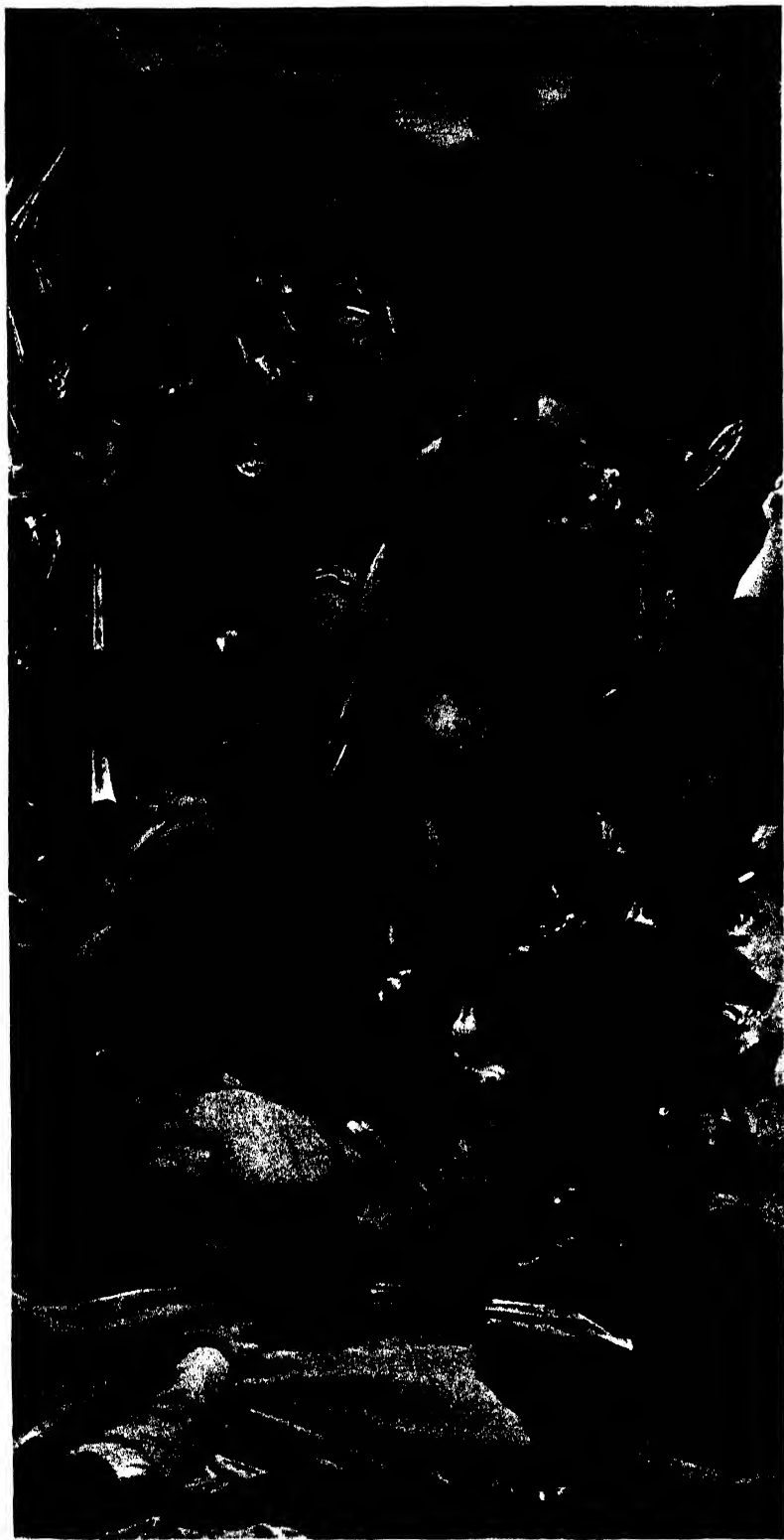


Painted by E. Delaunay.

[By permission of E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

ST. GENEVIÈVE REASSURING THE PARISIANS DURING THE APPROACH OF ATTLA.

In 451 A.D., when the Huns under Attila were threatening Paris, St. Geneviève induced the inhabitants to remain on their island in the Seine by the assurance that the danger would pass. Her words were fully justified by what transpired, Attila being defeated on the plains of Châlons. St. Geneviève was born about 422 and died in 512. She was conspicuous for her kindness and the austerity of her life, and appears to have exercised much influence over Childeric, the father of Clovis. She is the patron saint of Paris.



Painted by]

ATTILA ADVANCING ON PARIS.

[Courcelles Dumont,

Attila succeeded to the throne of his uncle Rona about A.D. 433. His kingdom comprised Hungary and Transylvania, but before he invaded Western Europe he was ruler of an empire extending from the Rhine to the Caspian Sea. He was defeated at Châlons.

Had it not been for the courage and energy of Count Odo and Bishop Gozlin, Paris would have been destroyed. In 888 Charles' reign came to an end, and Count Odo was chosen king, being anointed at Compiègne by the Archbishop of Paris. He was the most powerful noble in Western France; he had statesmanlike qualities; moreover, he had lately defended Paris against the Northmen. He was the son of the famous Robert the Strong, founder of the Robertian House, and had vast possessions in Anjou, Touraine, Champagne, and Poitou. His accession to the throne marked the definite beginning of the fall of the Carolingians, for Odo's descendants were Robert, who ruled France from 922 to 923, Hugh the Great, Count of Paris, and Hugh Capet, who established the Robertian line firmly on the throne of France. The struggle of these members of the Robertian line against the Carolingians forms the chief feature in the political history of France during the greater part of the tenth century. In 878 the death of Odo was followed by the accession of Charles the Simple—a Carolingian—his accession being due to the feeling which still existed for the descendants of Charles the Great, and also to the opposition which the strong rule of Odo had called forth from many of the feudal lords. The reign of Charles the Simple is chiefly famous on account of the Treaty of Clair-sur-Epte, which he made with Rollo the Northman in 911. By that treaty Normandy was handed over to Rollo, and France was saved from any further serious attacks by the northern pirates. In 922 Robert, brother of the late king Odo, drove Charles

from his throne, which he (Robert) occupied for a year only, for in 923 he was killed in the battle of Soissons.

Till 936 Rudolf, Duke of Burgundy and brother-in-law of Hugh the Great, ruled France, Charles the Simple being murdered at Péronne in 929. Rudolf was succeeded by Louis d'Outremer, son of Charles the Simple, who as a youth had been a refugee in England under the care of his uncle, King Athelstan. Unopposed by Hugh the Great, Louis reigned till 954. He showed himself a capable king, and recognized his debt to Hugh the Great by bestowing on him the title of Duke of the Franks, and by recognizing his position as second only to himself. But the Carolingian race was doomed. The death of Louis, due to an accident, was followed by the accession of his infant son Lothair. The position of Hugh the Great became more assured than ever, and on his death, in 956, his son and successor, Hugh Capet, inherited his position. Lothair died in 986, and his son Louis V. in the following year.



Painted by G. Rochegrosse.

[By permission of Braun et Cie.]

THE RAVAGES OF ATTILA.

The incident is the sacking of a Gallo-Roman villa during the invasion of Gaul by the Huns. Attila had no sense of justice in dealing with those whom he supposed to be weaker than himself, and warfare was conducted in the spirit that might alone was right. Whole cities were pillaged of all that was precious, and women and children were shamelessly outraged.

Both he and Lothair had alienated the Church, and they had lost the friendship of Germany. On the friendship and the loyalty of the Church the Capetian house had relied during the previous sixty years. Having lost these supports, the Carolingian house was helpless. The time had come for Hugh Capet to seize the French Crown and to found a celebrated dynasty.

THE VICTORY OF FEUDALISM, 987-1108

THE Carolingians had fallen before the House of Capet, but it was many years before the Capetian monarchy triumphed over feudalism. Hugh was "a mighty feudatory, raised by his own order to a position of pre-eminence to represent the predominance of the feudal idea." Hugh Capet himself was no ordinary man. He had a cold, calculating nature, but was capable of intense energy and was eminently resourceful. Several of the great feudatories were related to him. His brother Henry was Duke of Burgundy; the Dukes of Normandy and Aquitaine were his brothers-in-law; he was connected with the House of Vermandois. Moreover, in Adalberon, Archbishop of Rheims, and in Gerbert

he had powerful allies, who represented the Church in France, which was devoted to the House of Capet. At Rheims he was solemnly crowned by Adalberon as "king of the Gauls, the Bretons, the Normans, the Aquitanians, the Goths, the Spaniards and the Gascons." Thus was founded the monarchy of the Western Franks, who occupied the country between the Meuse and the Atlantic. Henceforward Hugh Capet and his successors regarded themselves as the representatives of the monarchy established by Clovis and strengthened by Charles the Great. Though the people and the clergy, through whose influence in great measure the Capetian monarchy had been founded, regarded Hugh as an absolute sovereign,



Painted by]

THE DEATH OF ST. GENEVIÈVE.

[J. P. Laurens.

The saintly Geneviève, who died in 512 at the age of ninety, had pursued a life of intense practical sympathy. The citizens of Paris long remembered her good counsel when Attila was almost at the gates, and also her relief of the city during the Frankish invasion of Gaul. Thousands flocked to receive her last blessing.

France, and indeed Europe, during his reign. Moreover, he conquered Burgundy, and at his death the new monarchy had, at any rate, not lost ground. But under his successor, Henry I., who reigned from 1031 to 1060, the monarchy weakened, and feudalism strengthened itself in various ways. His chief failure was in his attempts to conquer Normandy, though in those attempts he showed an unexpected courage and tenacity. His successor, Philip I. (1060-1108), had to face a new and unexpected situation when William the Norman conquered England, and from that time the relations of France and England are rarely of a pacific nature. He was not responsible for the evils which France, till 1453, suffered from the conquest of England by the Norman duke, though he at once recognized that

whose chief duty was to administer justice and to protect the weak against the strong, the feudal nobles regarded him as simply a *primus inter pares*, a great feudal noble with the same tastes as themselves, and to whom they were merely bound by homage and the oath of fealty. Thus there were in France, on the accession of Hugh Capet, two clearly defined and antagonistic conceptions of the royal power.

The task set to the early Capetians was thus a severe one, being nothing less than to recover the rights of the Church and to re-establish that political and territorial unity which had been destroyed by feudalism. In England the same problem had to be decided between the years 1000 and 1174. In France the problem could not definitely be attacked till after the death of Philip I. in 1108. Hugh Capet, however, took an important step on behalf of the new monarchy when he had his son crowned during his lifetime, "a precaution which became traditional" among his successors.

His son Robert, who reigned from 996 to 1031, followed in his father's footsteps, and was careful to maintain his close connection with the Church, the wisdom of which was obvious in face of the strong wave of religious feeling which swept over



Painted by]

[Joseph Blanc.

THE BAPTISM OF CLOVIS.

The baptism of Clovis was a matter of great political importance for those of the Christian faith, for orthodox Christians in the kingdoms of Burgundy and of the Visigoths hoped for the help of Clovis against their Arian kings. The efforts of Clovis against Burgundy were only partially successful, but in a decisive battle near Poitiers the Visigoths were defeated, and Clovis himself slew their king Alaric. Clovis was baptized by St. Remigius on Christmas Day, 496, at Rheims.



Photo]

THE BATTLE OF TOURS.

[Levy.

By the defeat of the Saracens at Tours in A.D. 732 the Arabs, under the leadership of Abdur Rahman, were hurled back in the last of their struggles for the mastery of Europe.

nevertheless remains true that France, at the opening of the twelfth century, could hardly be numbered among the chief European States. The power of the house of Capet, compared with that of other European sovereigns, was small and its material resources very slender. The French monarchy was surrounded by powerful dynasties in Arles, Aquitaine, Burgundy, Flanders and Normandy, to which was annexed the county of Maine. On Philip's death, however, the French monarchy was

undoubtedly developing. Its alliance with the Church—on which the Capetian monarchy was founded—was still intact; the royal domain—the Duchy of France—was a compact territory and contained rich lands. What was also of great importance in the future, the Capetian kingship was absolute, and the monarchy had never been a feudal monarchy. "The king was a real king and not a mere *primus inter pares*."

Such was the position of the French monarchy on the death of Philip I. in 1108.



Photo]

SUBMISSION OF WITIKIND TO CHARLEMAGNE.

[Levy.

From 772 Charlemagne was in constant combat with the Saxons, and a formidable war continued till 785, when Witikind accepted the peace proposals of Charlemagne. He was subsequently baptized in the presence of Charlemagne.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE ROYAL POWER FROM 1108

FROM the death of Philip I. the French monarchy steadily advanced. Its progress was

occasionally checked, *e.g.*, during the Hundred Years' War, and during the Wars of Religion in the latter half of the sixteenth century.

But in spite of these periods of reaction, the foundations on which the French monarchy rested were firmly laid by such men as Philip Augustus and Louis XI., and in the reign of Louis XIV. that monarchy became the arbiter of Europe. That Philip Augustus was able to place France in a position of equality with other European nations was due in some measure to the efforts of his two predecessors, Louis VI. and Louis VII. The former, who reigned from 1108 to 1137, made centralization his chief aim. He established the royal power firmly in the Duchy of France, breaking



Painted by]

THE CROWNING OF CHARLEMAGNE

[H. Lèry.

In 800 Charlemagne marched to Rome to support Pope Leo III. against the rebellious citizens. Whilst there he was crowned in St. Peter's amidst the acclamations of the people: "Long life and victory to Charles Augustus, crowned of God, great and pacific Emperor of the Romans!" His imperial title, which marked the union of Church and State, was "Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire."

down the power of the small feudal lords ; he checked the influence of the king of England in Normandy ; he annexed Aquitaine ; he always showed himself ready to protect the peasants and the clergy against the tyranny of the feudal lords. His work in advancing the monarchical power was, indeed, for a time checked by the absence of his successor Louis VII. (1137-1180) in the East for three years—an absence which, in spite of the efforts of Suger, who represented the king, enabled the feudal factions to reassert themselves. His divorce, too, from Eleanor of Aquitaine proved little less than a disaster for the young monarchy, for Eleanor married Henry of Anjou, who later became Henry II. of England, and her possessions, which included Guienne, Poitou, and Saintonge, passed away from the French monarchy. All that can be said on behalf of Louis is that he preserved the alliance of the Crown with the powerful Church, and that the monarchy on his death was prepared for the military conquests and the immense

material advance which marked the reign of Philip Augustus. That monarch reigned for forty-three years, from 1180 to 1223, and he proved himself "worthy to take place among the great statesmen who have made the Europe of to-day." When he ascended the throne France did not stand high among the monarchies of Europe; when he died France was recognized as one of the great states, for Philip was undisputably king of most of the land of France. The progress of France during the reign was in large measure due to the king himself. French chroniclers call him *le sage Philippe*, and the term implies that he had a power of dissimulation, that he was patient, and that he was careless what means he

employed to secure his ends. Like Henry II. of England, his first task on ascending the throne was to crush the feudal nobles, who, represented by the Counts of Flanders, Hainault, Blois, Namur, Sancerre and Champagne, and by the Duke of Burgundy, had formed, like the barons in England in 1173, a vast coalition. Philip, however, overcame his foes, and in 1186 forced the powerful Count of Flanders to make an arrangement most advantageous to the French monarchy. Having, like Henry II., vanquished the feudal nobles, Philip took in hand a far more difficult task, namely, that of lessening the power of the English kings in France.

In this task Philip showed his perseverance, his determination and his astuteness. There was never an interval of more than two years' peace with the Angevins, and Philip seized every opportunity of harassing some portion of the Angevin possessions in France. Undoubtedly the Angevin empire was built, certainly as far as their lands north of the Loire were concerned, on weak foundations, and Henry II., at the time of his death, seems to have recognized that fact. "He was borne to Chinon," wrote the late John Richard Green, "by the silvery waters of Vienne, and muttering, 'Shame, shame on a conquered king,' passed sullenly away." Though the Third Crusade for a time occupied the attention of Philip, the task of lessening the English power in France was renewed on his return from Palestine. From 1194 to 1199 he warred against Richard Cœur de Lion, who at the



By permission of]

[The British Museum.

ART IN THE TIME OF CHARLEMAGNE.

This is reproduced from a sumptuous group of MSS. of the Gospels produced about A.D. 800 under the influence of Charlemagne, and exhibits a combination of Late Roman and Anglo-Irish styles of art. There are full-page miniatures of the Evangelists, one of which, St. Mark, is here reproduced. The MS. is splendidly illuminated throughout, and every column of text is enclosed within a frame of gold, silver and colour.

time of his death was meditating the formation of a coalition, which should include the Emperor Otto IV., the Count of Flanders and himself. But Richard's death and John's blunders gave Philip the opportunity for which he had long waited. Normandy, Anjou and Maine were easily conquered before the end of 1204, and by 1207 Loches, Chinon, and the remaining towns on the Loire had fallen into Philip's hands. In order to deal an overwhelming blow at the power of the French king, John reverted to his predecessor's project of a coalition, and united with the Emperor Otto IV., the Count of Flanders, and Otto of Brunswick. While this coalition attacked Philip from the side of Flanders, John proposed to make a demonstration from Poitou. The victory of Philip at Bouvines on July 27th, 1214, completely destroyed this project, and Philip remained master of Normandy, Maine, Anjou, and Touraine, and to



Painted by]

[Blas.

CHARLEMAGNE AND HIS SCHOLARS.

The "School of the Royal Palace" was intended as an example for other schools throughout the empire. It was by means of a letter addressed to the bishops of his empire in 789 that schools for the benefit of the poorer classes were established. The revival of learning and the dissemination of it was one of the greatest of Charlemagne's interests, and he, too, was an ardent student of both art and literature.



Photo]

[Levy.

EUDES DEFENDS PARIS AGAINST THE NORMANS, 885.

For eighteen months the French, under Eudes, Count of Paris, gallantly withstood the assaults of the Normans, led by Rollo. Nevertheless the impotent Emperor Charles, on arriving with his army, betrayed the valour of the citizens by an agreement to ransom the capital, which they fiercely resented.

placed France under an interdict. Philip after a time made a qualified submission, but he refused to carry out in full the Pope's commands, and continued to press for a dissolution of his marriage. Nevertheless, his political alliance with the Papacy over the Albigensian Crusade tended to soften his relations with Innocent III., who regarded that Crusade as one of vital importance. The Albigenses were supported by the Count of Toulouse, who in 1213 was aided by Pedro of Aragon. On September 12th, 1213, they were decisively beaten by the Crusaders in the battle of Muret—a battle which in its importance to France was only equalled by that of Bouvines. For the inevitable result of that battle was that all Languedoc fell within a few years under the control of the king of France, and thus contributed to the strengthening of the power of the Capetian house.

On July 14th, 1223, Philip died at Mantes, having reigned forty-three years, of which about twenty-six were spent in warfare. When he ascended the throne he was lord of Paris and Orleans; when he died, he was master of Rouen and Angers, and all Languedoc was ready to be absorbed in the French monarchy. Under Louis VIII. and Louis IX. the work of Philip Augustus continued. Louis IX. was but twelve years old on his accession, and the government was undertaken by his mother, Blanche of Castille. The opportunity was not lost by the barons, and the years from 1226 to 1232 proved a critical epoch in the history of the young French monarchy.

Fortunately, Blanche was a woman of exceptional resolution, with clear and strong political instincts. She was supported by the clergy, the people of France, and the Papacy. Frederick II. would not allow any German prince to join the French barons, and Henry III.'s arrival in France to support the league that had been formed

some extent supreme in Poitou. The power of the House of Anjou was thus definitely broken, while the crusade against the Albigenses strengthened the power of French royalty in Languedoc. Under Philip II. the position of the monarchy was vastly different from what it had been under Philip I.

While Philip's foreign policy was strengthening France in her relations with other European powers, the country was undergoing a quiet internal revolution in the region of administration.

His relations with the Papacy form a curious page in his reign. His second wife was Ingeborgis of Denmark, but he cast her off on the day of his marriage, and on November 4th, 1193, a council of bishops at Compiègne declared the marriage null and void. The Papacy supported Ingeborgis. Innocent III. solemnly declared the divorce illegal, and on February 5th, 1200,



Photo]

[Levy.

SAINT BRUNO REFUSING GIFTS OF COUNT EUDES.

Bruno the Great was one of the most eminent men of his time, renowned for learning and for his monastic reforms. He was Archbishop of Cologne and Chancellor of the Empire in the reign of his brother, Otto I. He died at Rheims in 965.

against Blanche had no results. In 1229 the Count of Toulouse signed the Treaty of Meaux, yielding on all points, and shortly afterwards the royal power's supremacy was unquestioned, so that when Louis IX. took over in 1236 the government, his chief internal difficulty lay in the continued presence of the English in Poitou, Guienne, and Gascony. Owing to a struggle, which seemed likely to result in the firm acquisition of Poitou by the French king, Henry III. of England landed in France in 1242. But he suffered serious reverses at Taillebourg and Saintes, and having made a truce for five years, returned to England. Shortly afterwards Louis took the Crusader's vow, being anxious to recover Jerusalem from the Saracens and to aid the Latin Christians. He left France in 1248 and returned in 1254, the kingdom being ruled during his absence by his mother Blanche, who, however, died shortly before his return. Germany passed through a long period of anarchy, at the close of which the territorial power of the chief princes had become so firmly established that the existence of a strong central authority became impossible. The overthrow of the Hohenstaufens by the Papacy assured the pre-



Painted by Flameng.

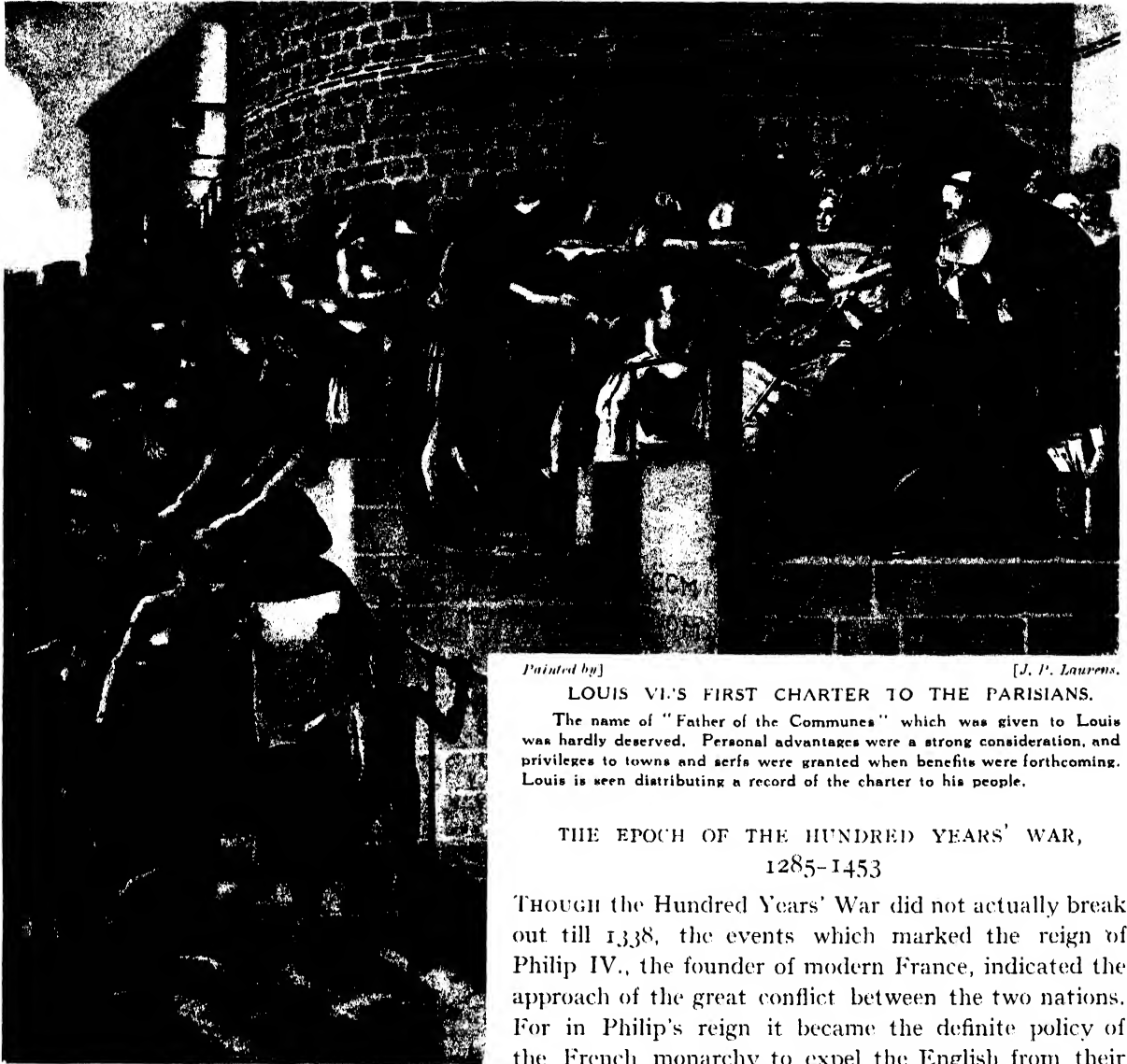
[By permission of E. Piotto, Paris.]

THE SCHOOL OF ABELARD, 1079-1142.

Abelard attained a great reputation as tutor and philosopher, and at Paris he entered the house of Fulbert, a canon of Notre-Dame, as tutor to the latter's niece Héloïse. Abelard's influence with her resulted in their elopement to Brittany, but the attachment did not last. Héloïse eventually retired to a convent whilst Abelard reverted to his former career.

ponderance of France in Europe, and was followed by the acceptance of the Crown of the two Sicilies in 1261 by Charles of Anjou, the king's brother. Two years earlier, in 1259, Louis had concluded with Henry III. the Treaty of Paris, in which Henry renounced his claims, not only on Normandy, Maine, Anjou and Touraine, but also on Poitou. On his part, Louis settled in favour of Henry some disputed points with regard to Gascony, and that part of Aquitaine which still was in the hands of the English. In 1264, by the Mise of Amiens, Louis gave a verdict in favour of Henry III. and against the English baronage. In 1270 Louis set out on his second Crusade, and landed at Tunis on July 13th. On August 25th he died, leaving France in a leading position among the states of Europe, none of which had attained the unity which characterized his country.

Under Louis' successor, Philip III., France gained Toulouse and Auvergne at the beginning of the reign, and in 1284, the year before his death, the king, who had already occupied Champagne and Brie, united Navarre to the French crown. Like his predecessors, his reign was marked by disputes with the English monarchy. He did not carry out the terms of the Treaty of Paris which Louis IX. and Henry III. had concluded in 1259, and it was not till 1287 that Edward I. obtained full satisfaction.



Painted by

[J. P. Laurens.]

LOUIS VI'S FIRST CHARTER TO THE PARISIANS.

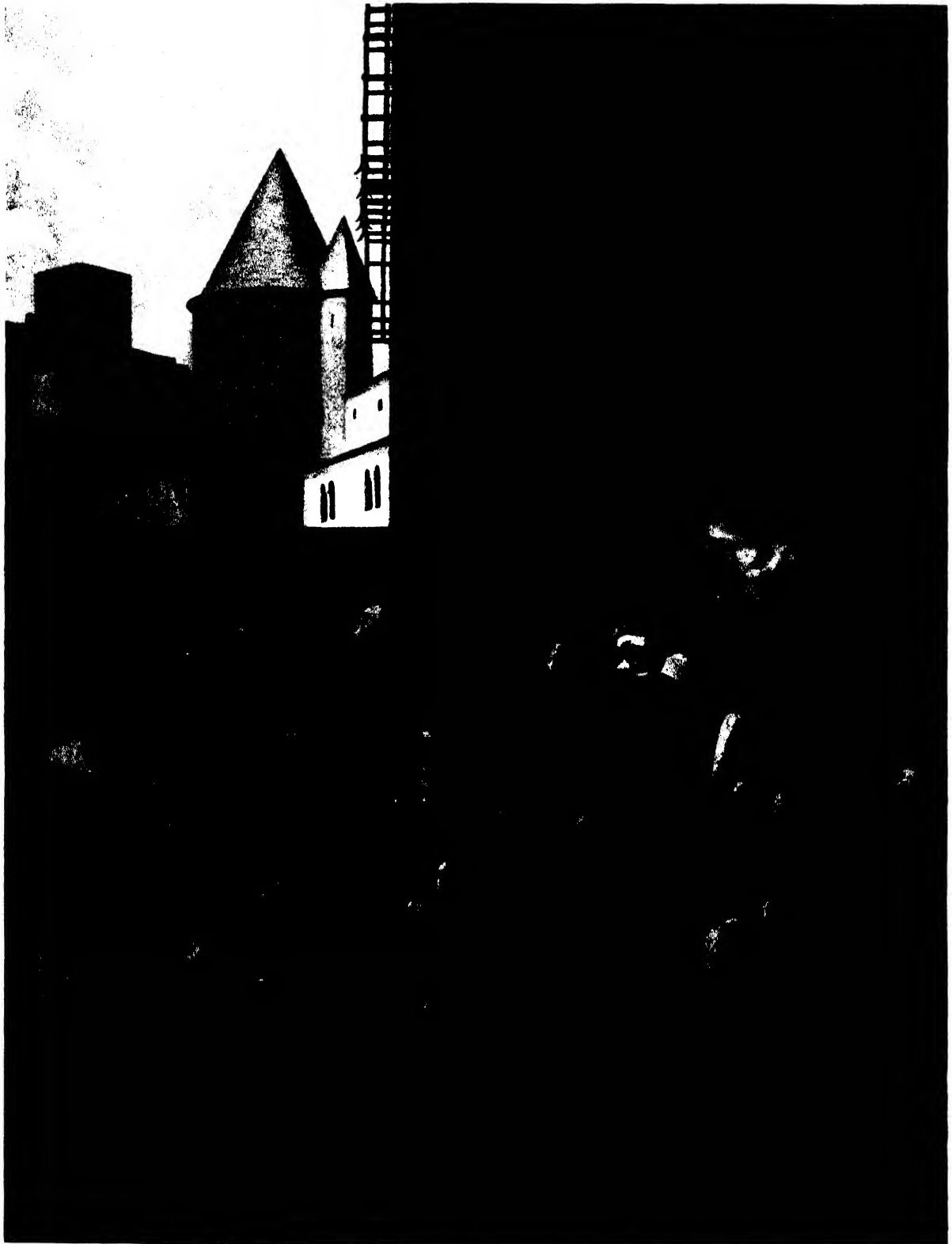
The name of "Father of the Communes" which was given to Louis was hardly deserved. Personal advantages were a strong consideration, and privileges to towns and serfs were granted when benefits were forthcoming. Louis is seen distributing a record of the charter to his people.

THE EPOCH OF THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1285-1453

THOUGH the Hundred Years' War did not actually break out till 1338, the events which marked the reign of Philip IV., the founder of modern France, indicated the approach of the great conflict between the two nations. For in Philip's reign it became the definite policy of the French monarchy to expel the English from their

possessions in Guienne and Gascony. In 1295, an important date in French history Philip concluded an alliance with Scotland, which alliance continued till the accession of the English Queen Elizabeth. Philip, in 1293, had declared all Aquitaine forfeit to the French Crown, and had occupied Gascony. When Edward formed a league to resist the aggressions of the French king, that monarch made the Scottish alliance above alluded to. Edward's policy proved for the time successful, as Philip, in 1303, relinquished his hold on the English provinces in order to attack and overthrow the Count of Flanders, one of Edward's most powerful allies. After having practically annexed Flanders, Philip suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of the Flemings in the battle of Courtrai in 1302. Eventually, after defeating the Flemings in 1304 at Mons-en-Pevelle, Philip made a treaty which was disastrous to Flemish independence. Like Edward I., a quarrel with the Papacy, then under Boniface VIII., occupied several years (1294-1303) of Philip's reign. With the aid of the States-General, which met in 1302, Philip successfully resisted the Papal claims, and virtually imprisoned Boniface for a few days in Anagni. His successor, Clement V., decided in 1309 to fix the Papal residence at Avignon, and thus began the Babylonish captivity which had such important results.

The reigns of Philip IV.'s three successors, Louis X., Philip V. and Charles IV., reigns which extended from 1314 to 1328, were only important for the fact that the Salic Law, excluding females from the



Painted by]

[J. P. Laurens.

THE ALBIGENSES OF CARCASSONNE.

There is no precise information as to the principles and moral practice of the Albigenses, but they certainly formed a party which was anti-sacerdotal and antagonistic to the Roman Church. The sect obtained its name from the town of Albi in South-Central France, where it was exceedingly strong, and in their missions the Roman Church had to submit to discussions with their Doctors. It is due to the inquisition, which operated in Carcassonne and the neighbouring district, that the movement was finally crushed. The monk in the picture is evidently trying to gain over the allegiance of the people to the Roman Church.



Photo by]

[Neurdein.

THE FORTRESS OF CARCASSONNE.

Carcassonne is unique in Europe both for its strength and the completeness of its fortifications, which are the work of three distinct periods—Roman, Visigoth and thirteenth century. Of the complete medieval city contained within the walls, the cathedral and castle are both standing.

succession, was adopted, and also because with the death of Charles IV., in 1328, the House of Capet ended.

Before he died, Charles IV. had, in 1327, made the Treaty of Paris with Edward III., by which the latter obtained the restoration to their estates of certain of his Gascon vassals. The Treaty of Paris, like the one executed in 1259, was only a truce, and on his accession in 1328, Philip of Valois at once showed that he intended his reign to be one of ceaseless activity. In the year of his accession he conquered Flanders in the battle of Cassel for its Count Louis, who became entirely dependent on the French king; and the following year Edward III. did homage for his French possessions. Philip showed the same activity in his domestic affairs. Shortly after his accession he recklessly alienated Robert of Artois, one of his most powerful nobles, and compelled him, in 1336, to seek refuge at Edward III.'s Court.

He also had, in 1334, received David Bruce, one of the candidates for the Scottish throne, whose claims were opposed by Edward III., at his Court, and with his connivance Louis, Count of Flanders, in 1336, arrested all the English merchants in Flanders, with the result that the lucrative trade between that country and England was suspended. War had already become imminent owing to the unceasing efforts of Philip to extend his hold upon Aquitaine and to his support of David Bruce; it now became inevitable, owing to the crisis with regard to the Flemish trade.

In the summer of 1338 the actual outbreak of the Hundred Years' War took place, and Edward

formed a close alliance with the emperor and several German princes. In order to secure the definite support of the Flemings and of several of Philip's vassals, Edward, in 1339, considered the advisability of making a claim to the French throne. Supported by the Flemings, with whom he had signed an alliance at Ghent on January 25th, 1339, Edward invaded France, but failed to take Tournay.

Meanwhile the French had gained successes in Guienne, and the war in Scotland still continued. Edward, moreover, on September 23rd, signed a truce, and his inglorious campaign came to an end, the only satisfactory result being that James van Arteveld and the



By permission of]

[The British Museum.

ILLUSTRATED MS. (END OF THIRTEENTH CENTURY).

Here Bible history is shown moralized in Latin, illustrated by various hands with drawings in outline. Those in the plate refer to Martha and Mary, the disciples plucking the ears of corn, Christ healing the man with a withered arm, and the daughter of Herodias, the symbolical meaning in each case being represented below.

men of Ghent remained supreme in Flanders. On June 24th the famous battle of Sluys took place, and the fame of the English arms was established in Europe. A second invasion by Edward of Picardy proved a failure, and ended on September 25th, 1340, in the Truce of Esplechin, which was renewed till 1345. However, in 1342 the war of the Breton succession gave Edward a fresh pretext for interfering in the affairs of France. In the end Edward's ally, John of Montfort, was defeated, and Charles of Blois, the candidate supported by Philip, won the day though partisan warfare was continued for some time.

In 1345 Philip found himself threatened in Gascony, and in 1346 France was invaded by Edward III. Caen was captured in July, and on August 26th the French army suffered total defeat in the battle of Crécy, while on October 17th its Scottish allies were overthrown in the battle of Neville's Cross. Further disasters occurred in Aquitaine, while in Brittany John de Montfort, the ally of England, established himself in power; and on August 3rd, 1347, Calais passed into English hands, not to be surrendered till the reign of the English Queen Mary. A truce was signed at Calais on September 28th, and Edward returned to England. In spite of the ravages of the Black Death, warlike operations continued in various quarters.

In 1349 and the following years the English power in Gascony and Guienne, in spite of the French resistance, was considerably extended, and in 1350 a fleet of Spanish privateers suffered a severe defeat off Winchelsea. Efforts to make peace in 1354 failed owing to the French refusal to accept the English terms, and the years 1355 and 1356 proved overwhelmingly disastrous to France. In 1355-6 their country was invaded from Normandy by Lancaster and from the south-west by the Prince of Wales, who had been received with acclamation by the Gascons. While Lancaster reduced Normandy into a state of anarchy, the Black Prince raided Languedoc, and then marched to the Loire, finally turning southwards. On September

19th, 1356, a French army was disastrously beaten in the battle of Poitiers, where John, who had succeeded Philip in 1350 as king of France, was captured. This defeat left France under the guidance of the Dauphin Charles, who proved unable to deal with the existing situation. In October, 1356, a famous meeting of the States-General took place, and its leader, Étienne Marcel, endeavoured to carry out a policy of reform. An ordinance of March, 1357, lessened the royal powers; but the provinces would not support Paris, and civil war ensued. Moreover, a rising of the peasantry, known as the Jacquerie, took place, and a reaction in favour of the royal power followed. Marcel was murdered, and



Painted by

THE CHILDHOOD OF ST. LOUIS.

[C. Banel.]

Louis VIII. died during the minority of his son, and the child Louis was left to the care of his mother. His austerity in later life was due to his careful upbringing and to the influence of the Queen's clerical advisers. From his youth Louis was always a strong supporter of the Church.

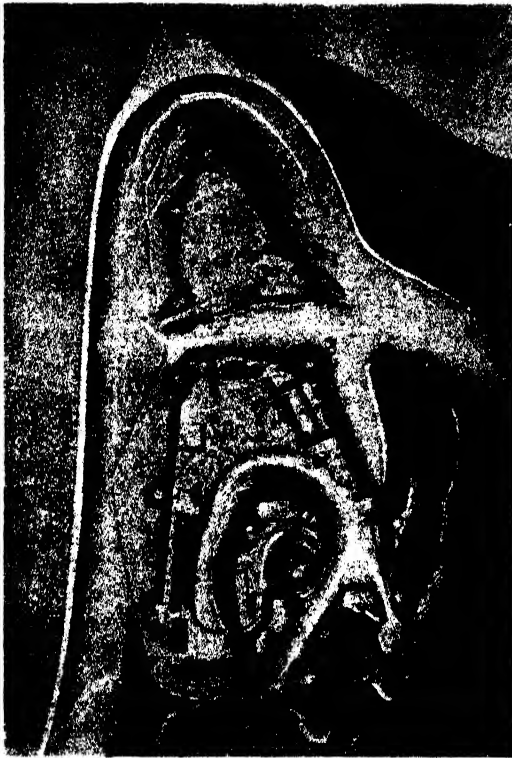


Photo by]

[New deliv.

A RELIEF OF CHÂTEAU GAILLARD.

Château Gaillard, one of the most celebrated of medieval fortresses, stands on a steep chalk ridge dominating a great loop of the Seine above Les Andelys. It was built in 1197 by Richard I. of England to secure Normandy against the attacks of Philip Augustus, but Richard's death in 1199 brought the war to a summary conclusion, and five years later the castle, his joy and pride, was captured by the French king.

Before his death John had taken a step which proved of no little importance in future years. In 1361 he had bestowed the Duchy of Burgundy, which had lapsed to the French crown, upon his youngest son, Philip le Hardi, who proved the founder of the House of Burgundy, which continued to rival the power of the kings of France till the death of Charles the Bold in the following century. Finding himself unable to raise the sums required to pay his ransom, John returned to England in 1363, and on his death in 1364 was succeeded by his son Charles V. A man of ability and determination, Charles proved a most successful ruler.

in December, 1359, Edward III. besieged Paris. In January, 1360, he marched eastwards, and received the adhesion of the Duke of Burgundy. Having again failed in April to take Paris, Edward retired to Chartres, where a truce was made. At Calais, on October 24th, 1360, a definite treaty confirmed the negotiations which had been made earlier in the year at Brétigny. Most of Aquitaine was ceded to England, and King John agreed to pay a heavy ransom and to renounce his Scottish alliance.

Till his death in 1364, King John honestly endeavoured to keep faith with Edward III., but in spite of his efforts guerilla warfare continued in various parts of France. In Brittany the war between Montfort and Blois still continued till the decisive battle of Auray on September 29th, 1364. In that battle Charles of Blois was killed, and Du Guesclin, who had, as a Breton, come to his aid, was taken prisoner. In the following year the Treaty of Guérande recognized Montfort as John IV. of Brittany. Shortly before the battle of Auray came the destruction of the power of Charles of Navarre (the Bad) in Normandy, and thus the north of France was to some extent pacified. After his defeat by Du Guesclin in the battle of Cocherel on May 16th, 1364, Charles of Navarre was forced to betake himself to his southern kingdom.

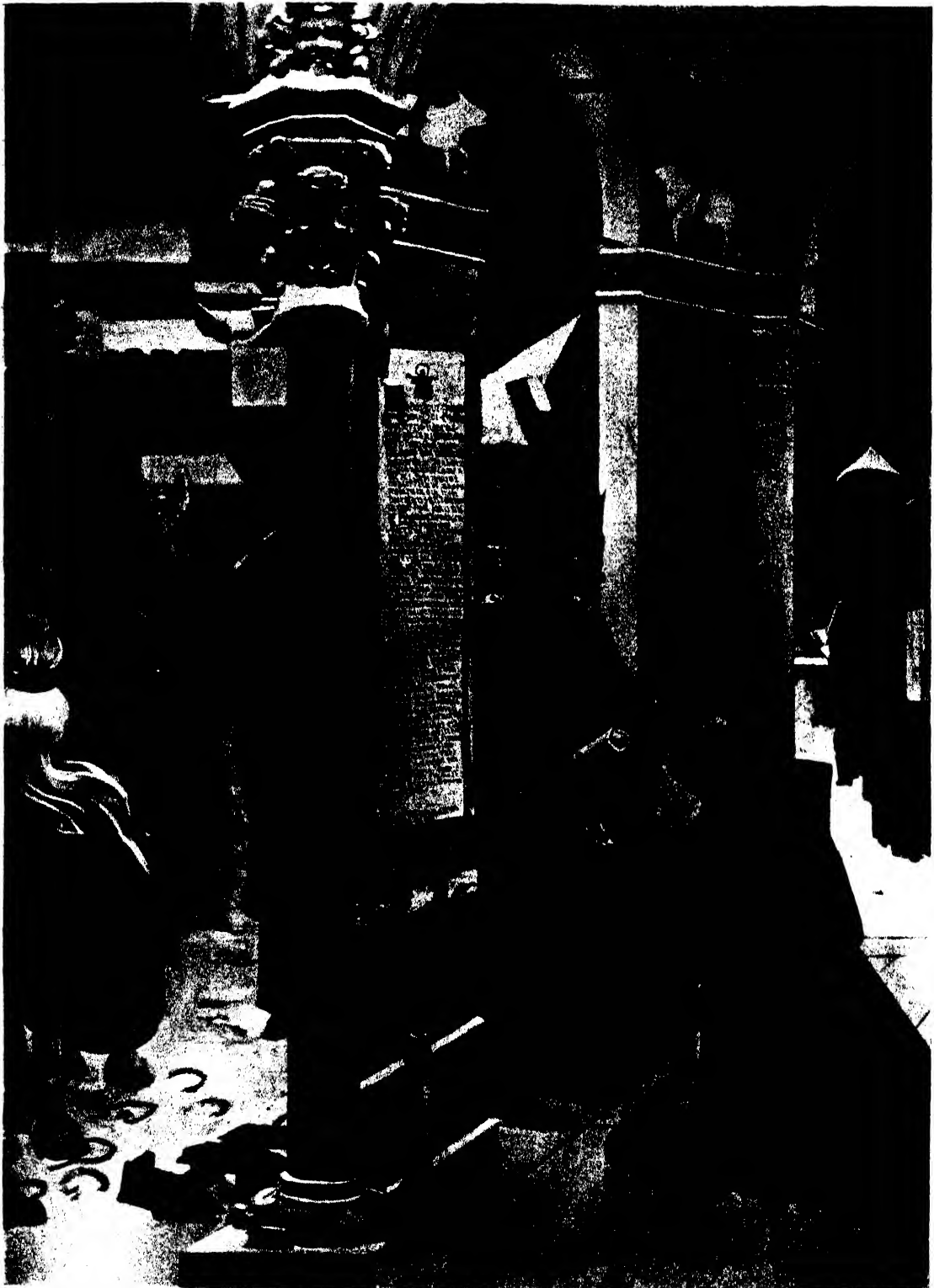


By permission of]

[The British Museum.

LIMOGES ENAMEL ON COPPER.

Triptych—Limoges enamel on copper—a combination of nine plaques. In the centre the Annunciation, above and below which are rows of angels. In the left volet are Louis XII. and St. Louis, with the arms of France above and below. In the right volet are Anne of Bretagne and St. Ann, with the arms of France and Brittany above and below. (By Nardow Penicaud. French. 1499-1513.)



Painted by Flameng.

[By permission of E. Florilla, Paris.

SAINT LOUIS, 1214-1270.

The Church of Rome knew no stouter champion than Louis IX., whose attitude was determined by personal piety no less than by his political convictions. The period between his two crusades (1254-1269) is known as "The Age of St. Louis." His marked success in keeping the factions among the French nobility at peace was brought about by the power of his moral force, reinforced by public opinion. St. Louis was physically strong in spite of his asceticism, and he holds a place in history as the ideal medieval king.



Painted by]

[Delacroix.

THE BATTLE OF TAILLEBOURG.

LOUIS IX. spent the early years of his reign in consolidating his dominions, extending the royal prerogative and continuing the process of centralization at the expense of the feudal nobility. His force of character and vigour alarmed the disaffected nobles, whose jealousy came to a head in open rebellion in 1242, when Hugh de Lusignan, Count of the Marche, and Raymond, Count of Toulouse, took the field, supported by the English under Henry III. At Taillebourg the English were severely defeated and Henry III. was all but captured.

He gradually restored the supremacy of the Crown, reorganized the military and civil departments, and steadily prepared the way for a renewal of the war with England. A struggle in Spain between Pedro the Cruel and Henry of Trastamare for the crown of Castile gave Charles an opportunity of showing his skill as a ruler. Adopting the cause of Henry, he encouraged Du Guesclin to lead the mercenary companies who were such a cause of anxiety in France into Spain, and in 1366 they aided Henry to expel Peter from Spain. That tyrant, however, found support in Bordeaux, where the Black Prince had established himself, and on April 3rd, 1367, the Black Prince defeated Henry and Du Guesclin in the battle of Najara, taking the latter prisoner, and restored Peter to the throne of Castile.

The expedition of the Black Prince, though successful in its object, proved of great value to Charles V. For on his return to Aquitaine the Prince was compelled to tax his French subjects heavily. Great discontent was the result, and at the end of 1368 the *Parlement* of Paris, on behalf of the Count of Armagnac, who had allied himself secretly with the French king, listened to his complaint with regard to a hearth tax, and cited the Black Prince before it. His refusal in January, 1369, marked the reopening of the war, which took the form of a national movement against the English occupation of Gascony and Guienne. The French at once attacked the English power in Aquitaine and gained many successes. Their cause was distinctly aided by the sack of Limoges in September, 1370—an act which alienated

Southern France from the English. Expeditions from England failed, and Henry of Trastamare, who in 1369 had finally secured the throne of Castile, destroyed the English fleet off La Rochelle on June 23rd, 1372.

On December 27th, 1373, Jean de Vienne was appointed Admiral of France. The new admiral at once set to work constructing a navy capable of resisting the attacks of the English ships, and his work was rendered easier by the existence of a two years' truce, which lasted from 1375 to June 24th, 1377. By that time the French fleet consisted of some one hundred and twenty ships, of which thirty-five were large vessels, and was supported by a Spanish contingent of thirteen ships. Five days after the truce ended and eight days after the death of Edward III., Jean de Vienne occupied and burned Rye, after which success he burned Lewes, Folkestone, Portsmouth, Dartmouth, and Plymouth, returning to Honfleur early in August with much booty. He continued his attacks on England during the autumn, ravaging the Isle of Wight and burning Poole and Hastings.

Thus the first year of the reign of Richard II. of England saw the French fleet in practical command of the Channel. During 1378 the success of the French fleet was somewhat checked, but in July Jean de Vienne defeated an English squadron, and while the Duke of Lancaster was besieging Saint Malo, he was ravaging the coasts of Devon and Cornwall. In 1379, owing to a violent storm, England's only effective fleet was destroyed off the Irish coast, and, consequently, the attacks of the French cruisers in 1380 were usually attended with success, Jersey and Guernsey being captured, Gravesend being burned, and Portsmouth and Hastings again destroyed. In 1381 a truce was made, which continued for six years. In the previous year Charles V. had died, and his successor, Charles VI., was still a minor. His reign opened with a rising of the Parisians and a war with the Flemings, who had revolted under Philip van Arteveld against their count, whose daughter had married the Duke of Burgundy. In 1382, on November 18th, at the battle of Roosbek the French defeated the men of Ghent and killed van Arteveld. In 1385 a French expedition proceeded to Scotland, the object being to invade England while Richard II. was fighting the Scots. The project, however, was not successful. The English fleet was now in good condition, and war having been declared against England in 1386 by Charles VI., it showed itself supreme on the sea. In the meantime the Duke of Burgundy had in 1383, on the death of Louis de Mâle, obtained the inheritance of the Counts of Flanders—an event of serious import to the French monarchy in the next century. In 1389 a truce was concluded with England, which lasted into the next century. Charles VI., whose reign had on the whole opened so successfully, had married in 1385 Isabella of



Painted by

SAINT LOUIS A PRISONER IN PALESTINE.

[Cubanel,

Louis IX. would hardly have become "Saint Louis" if he had not shown his zeal for the Church, in the approved manner of the period, by undertaking a crusade against the infidel Saracens. His experiences, however, were far from fortunate, for his first expedition came to an abrupt conclusion with his defeat and capture at Mansura in 1250. His courage and dignity in adversity are said to have greatly impressed his captors.

Bavaria. From 1388 to 1392 he took the government of France into his own hands, employing able ministers (who were nicknamed the Marmousets), such as the Constable of Clisson, Jean de Nogent, Arnaud de Corbie and Bareaux de la Rivière.

During these years many useful reforms were carried out, and for a time the feudal influences of the great dukes were checked. In August, 1392, while riding in the forest of Mans, Charles was seized with a fit of insanity. The uncles of the king, Philip of Burgundy and John of Berry, at once dismissed the king's counsellors and seized the government. Peace with England continued, and in the autumn of 1396 the marriage of Richard II. with Isabella, daughter of the French king, took place. But all hopes



Painted by Fourié.

[By permission of E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

ETIENNE MARCEL BEFORE THE DAUPHIN.

When John II. was made prisoner by the English after the battle of Poitiers the wealthy and influential burghers of Paris seized on the opportunity to demand privileges and reforms from the boy Dauphin Charles. Etienne Marcel was provost of the Paris merchants and the moving spirit in the popular party which extracted a great edict of reform from the Dauphin in 1357.

of an alliance between England and France disappeared when in 1399 Richard was deposed by Henry of Lancaster. The government of Charles VI. hoped to continue to be at peace with England; but the Duke of Orleans, brother of the French king, sent a letter of defiance to Henry IV.

In 1404, Burgundy died, and till 1407, when he was killed, Orleans was supreme, much to the detriment of France and to the annoyance of Henry IV. In fact, it was not till the murder of Orleans in Paris by the emissaries of John the Fearless that French assistance to Owain Glyndwr ceased and Henry was free from all danger from a combination of France, the Percies, and the Welsh. The murder of Orleans was followed by the flight of Burgundy to Flanders, whence he returned in February, 1408, to Paris, accompanied by a large army. For the time he appeared to have won the day, but the cause of the young Charles Duke of Orleans, was taken up by his father-in-law, Bernard of Armagnac, and



Photo by

[Mansell,

WEST FRONT. CHARTRES CATHEDRAL.

The Cathedral is one of the most beautiful Romanesque-Gothic buildings existing, and dates from the early part of the thirteenth century. The doorways of the west end are triple and the sculpture above them is of great refinement and interest.

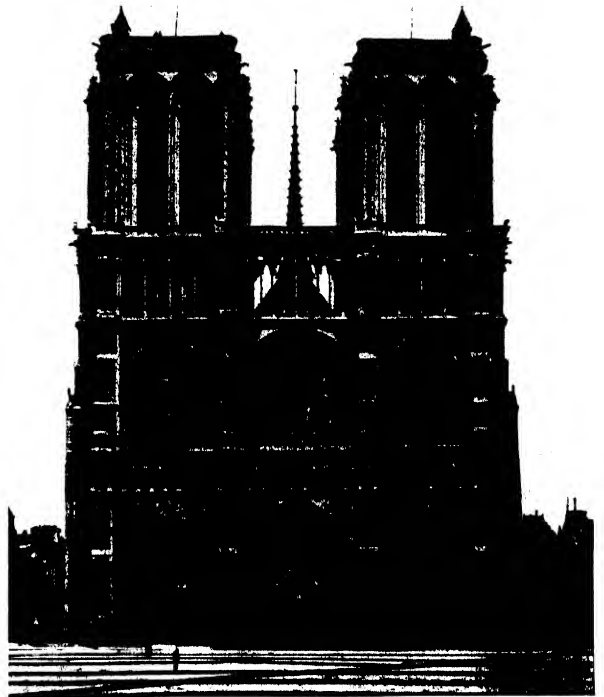


Photo by

[Mansell,

WEST FRONT. NOTRE DAME DE PARIS.

The Cathedral was founded in 1163. The doors are ornamented with early Gothic carving, and above them are sculptured figures representing Kings of Israel and Judah. Over the rose window there is a gallery of graceful arches supported by slender columns.



Photo by

[Mansell,

THE CATHEDRAL OF ORLEANS.

The present Cathedral, which was founded in 1601 and completed in 1829, takes the place of an earlier building burnt by the Huguenots in 1567. It is Gothic in style, and the east end with its flying buttresses is of greatest interest.

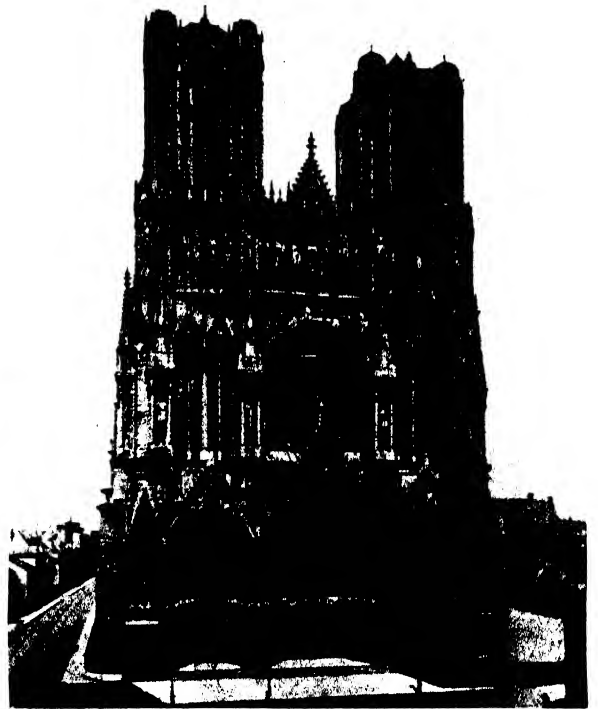
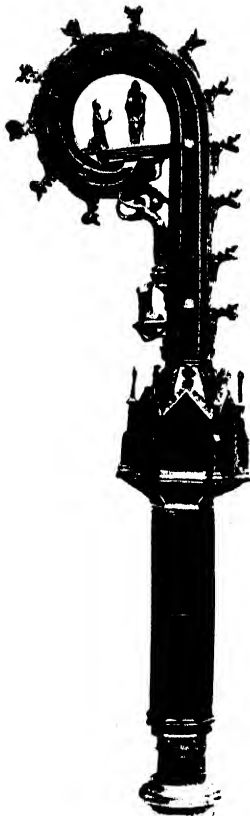


Photo by

[Photochrom Ltd.,

WEST FRONT. RHEIMS CATHEDRAL.

The façade of the Cathedral is a masterpiece of the Middle Ages. The three doorways are filled with statues, and over the centre one is a magnificent rose window within an arch, which is profusely decorated with statues.



By permission of the British Museum.

PASTORAL STAFF HEAD.

Pastoral staff head in gilt metal enamelled and gemmed; on the knob are figures of the Virgin and the Three Kings and saints. (Dated 1351.)

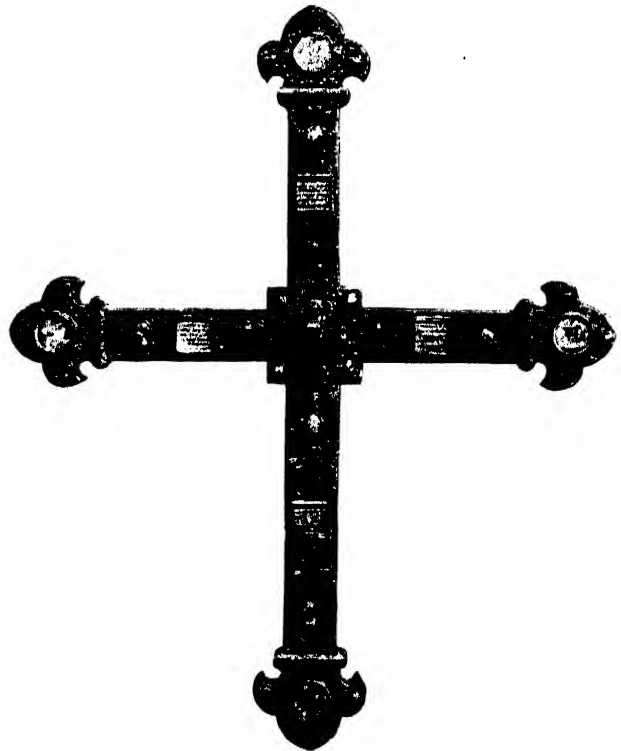
Richemont. At the end of the year the Dauphin Louis died, leaving France still torn by internal divisions.

In April, 1417, the new Dauphin, John of Touraine, died, leaving his brother Charles, then fifteen years old, to inherit the French kingdom. That prince had been brought up to some extent by Bernard, Count d'Armagnac, and, consequently, was a bitter enemy of Burgundy. In August of the same year as that which saw the death of John of Touraine, Henry V., who had an understanding with the Duke of Burgundy, again invaded France, occupying several towns in Normandy.

Nothing could be more deplorable than the condition of France at the close of 1417 and at the opening of 1418, for not only was she being ravaged by a foreign army, but was being destroyed by civil war.

till 1435 France was divided between the two factions of the Burgundians and Armagnacs. During the years 1408 and 1409 the situation in France was practically one of civil war. In 1410 open hostilities broke out between the two parties in France, the Duke of Burgundy being supported by Paris, and generally by the inhabitants of the east of France, who were of Teutonic descent, while Armagnac's chief strength was derived from the Romanized Celts, who were to be found for the most part in the south and west. In 1411 the situation was complicated by the insurrection of the Guild of Butchers, which caused many of the citizens to fly from Paris, leaving their houses at the mercy of the mob, who for upwards of a year were practically supreme in the city. In that year, too, the Duke of Burgundy invited Henry IV. to send an English force into France. The Duke of Orleans had also addressed Henry with the same object; but the English king gave the preference to Burgundy, partly because an English army could be easily landed in Flanders. After the defeat of the Orleanists in 1412, at St. Cloud, Henry IV. concluded a treaty with the defeated party, and a considerable English force landed in Normandy, with the result that in 1414 Burgundy was excluded from the government, and the Cabochians, or Guild of Butchers, were suppressed.

The Orleanists were now supreme, but soon found themselves engaged in a war which Henry V. forced upon them. The battle of Agincourt was fought on Friday, October 25th, 1415, and resulted in a disastrous defeat for the French. Seven French princes perished, of whom the Duke d'Alençon, the Duke of Bar, the Count of Nevers and the Duke of Brabant are the best known; five were taken prisoners, namely, the Dukes of Orleans and Bourbon, the Counts of Eu, of Vendôme and of



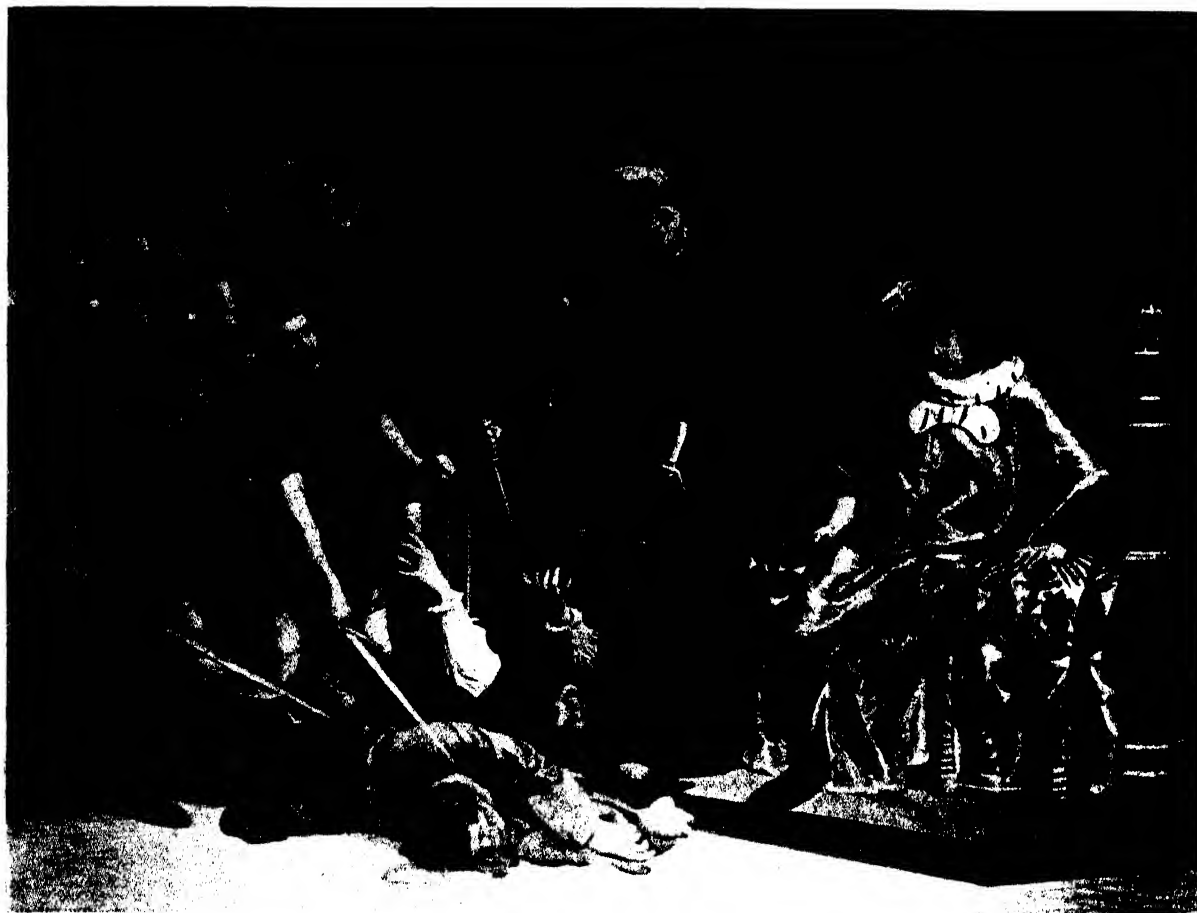
By permission of

[The British Museum.]

PROCESSIONAL CROSS OF THIRTEENTH CENTURY.

Processional cross of wood with the sides cased in silver, the back chased gilt copper, and the front with silver-gilt foliate stamped from dies in openwork set with precious stones. In the limbs of the cross are four small reliquaries covered by miniature pictures illuminated in gold and colours and lists of the relics on vellum, protected by pieces of crystal. This cross was made by the monk Hugo de Oignies, Namur. (French work of about the middle of the thirteenth century. 20½ in. by 14½ in.)

Negotiations were opened in the early weeks of 1418 in order to bring about the union of all parties ; but the only results were a rising in Paris, the massacre of Bernard, Count of Armagnac, and many others of his party, the entry of the Duke of Burgundy into Paris, and the capture of Rouen after a siege of seven months on January 13th, 1419. Many towns at once submitted to Henry V., of which the chief were Dieppe, Fécamp, Arques, Mantes, Honfleur. This fresh disaster led to a reconciliation between the Dauphin and Burgundy, and after an interview at Pouilli-le-Fort it was settled that a month later, in September, they should again meet at Montereau-sur-Yonne, to consider the best means of resisting the English. On September 10th, 1419, that meeting took place. The Dauphin accused the Duke of having broken his word, but the interview was cut short by Tannegui du Châtel and others, who set



Painted by]

[Meltingue,

THE TRIUMPH OF ETIENNE MARCEL.

King John repudiated the edict which the Dauphin had granted, and accordingly Marcel conspired to set up Charles the Bad, King of Navarre, in opposition to him. On the 22nd February, 1358, the Paris mob, led by Marcel, burst into the Palace and murdered the marshals of Champagne and Normandy before the Dauphin's eyes.

upon him and murdered him. All hope of uniting the French parties in opposition to Henry V. was lost, for Philip, the young Duke of Burgundy, at once threw in his lot with the English, whom it was now impossible to resist. On May 21st, 1420, the Treaty of Troyes testified to the helpless condition of France. By that treaty it was settled that Henry V. should be king of France on the death of Charles VI., and that he should act as regent during that king's lifetime. Further, Katherine, daughter of Charles VI., was to marry Henry V., who should do his best to restore order in France, while both Charles VI. and Philip of Burgundy were to war against the Dauphin. The treaty was accepted by the *Parlement* of Paris and by the Parisians, and Henry received the title of Regent and heir of France. The treaty, however, was not accepted by the Armagnacs nor by many of the French provinces, those lying south of the Loire showing continued hostility to the English occupation. The Dauphin took

the title of Regent, at once became the recognized leader of the opposition to the English, and fixed his capital at Bourges. On March 21st, 1422, while Henry V. was in England, the French, aided by a force of Scots, defeated and slew the Duke of Clarence at Beaugé, killing some three thousand, including a number of nobles. Henry at once returned to France, and in the following year took Meaux and a number of towns in Picardy and Champagne.

Henry's death on August 31st, 1422, followed by that of Charles VI., at once changed the whole political situation, for Henry VI. was a minor, and the government of England was carried on by the Privy Council, though Bedford, Gloucester, and Beaufort had considerable influence. Till 1453, when the English were expelled from France, there was an almost continuous state of warfare. Charles VII.'s centre of government was Bourges, that of Henry VI. being Paris. From 1422 to 1435 the English held their own. But even during these years it was evident that the national feeling was growing. In 1423 and 1424, indeed, the English won the battles of Crévant and Verneuil, but failed to take Orleans in



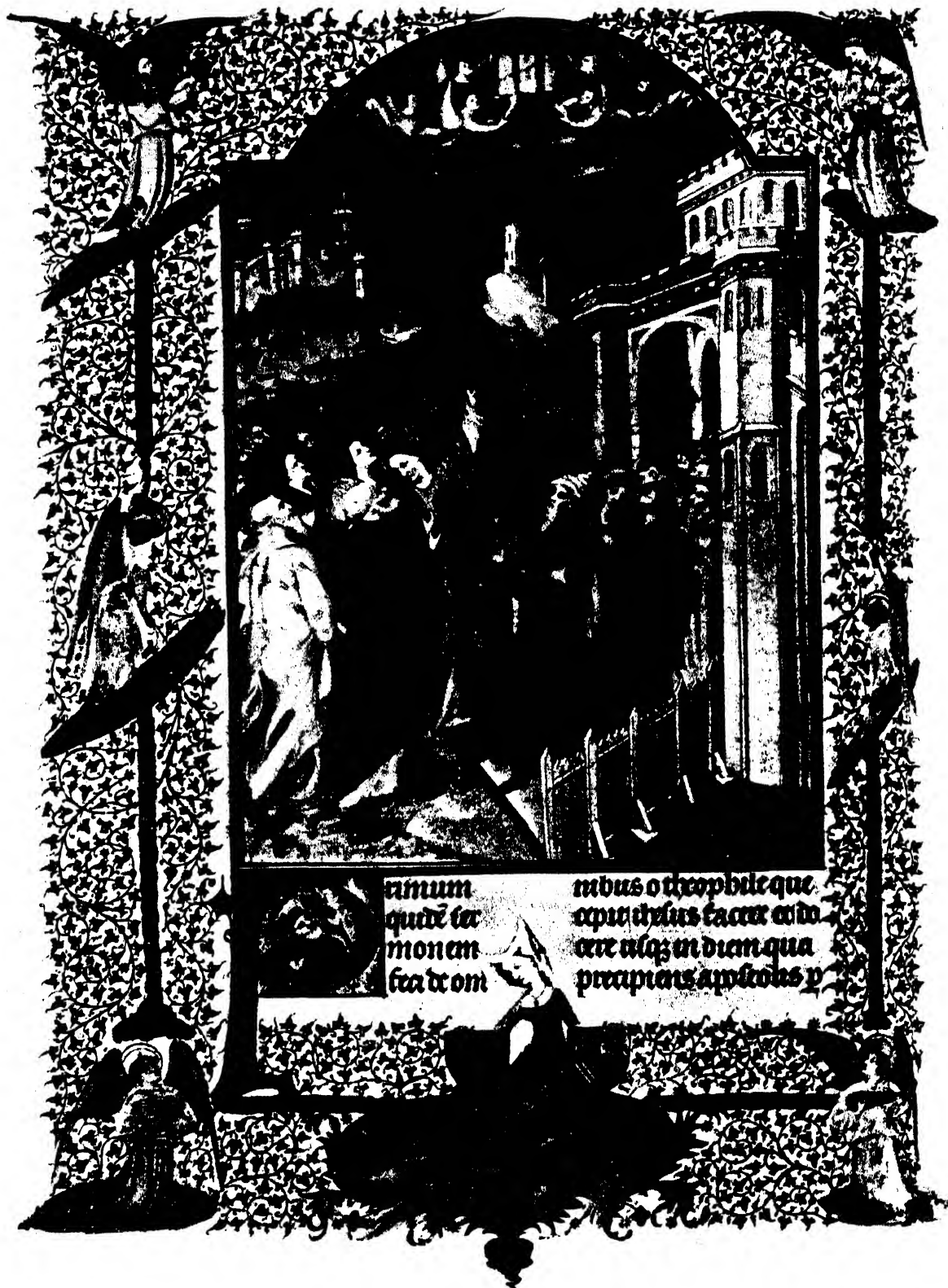
Painted by]

[J. P. Laurens.

THE EXECUTION OF THE MAILLOTINS.

Just as oppressive taxation produced Jack Cade's Rebellion in England, so the extortions of the Regent John of Anjou exasperated the populace of Paris, who seized the arms destined for the war with England and massacred the tax-gatherers and other royal officials. The revolt was finally suppressed, and wholesale executions spread terror in the turbulent mob.

1428. It was at that siege that Jeanne d'Arc became so conspicuous a figure in French history. She took a leading part in saving Orleans, and helped to stimulate the growth of national sentiment. On July 16th, 1429, Charles VII. was crowned at Rheims; in 1432 the alliance of Burgundy with the English ended, and in 1435 Burgundy made the Treaty of Arras with the French king. All parties were now united in desiring the expulsion of the English from France, and the period from 1435 to 1453 sees that object accomplished. In 1437 Charles VII. reoccupied Paris, and in 1439 called together the States-General at Orleans. That body established a permanent military force, which was controlled by the king, and voted a national tax, called the *taille*. By these acts a serious blow was struck at feudal independence, and a real attempt was made to deal with the prevalent disorder. Fearing the effects of these ordinances on their independence, many nobles joined the movement known as the Praguerie in 1440, which with the support of the greater part of the nation was speedily suppressed. In 1444 a truce was made with the English which lasted five years, during which period the French army was so strengthened, both as regards artillery as well as cavalry and infantry, that when in 1449 hostilities



By permission of

[The British Museum,

BREVIARY OF JOHN, DUKE OF BURGUNDY (FRENCH. EARLY FIFTEENTH CENTURY).

One nearly full-page miniature of the Ascension is in a delicate gold ivy-leaf border, in which are six angels with wings of green and gold. The female figure below supports two shields, one displaying the arms of John, Duke of Burgundy (d. 1419), and the other the same arms impaling those of his Duchess, Margaret of Bavaria (m. 1385). The same MS. also contains fifty-eight small miniatures of the width of a column, many of which are exquisitely painted.



By permission of]

[The British Museum.

PAINTED IVORY POLYPTYCH.

Painted ivory polyptych carved with the Virgin and Child, flanked by scenes connected with the Nativity. (Southern French, fourteenth century.)

the fifteenth century the Dukes of Burgundy had further acquired Hol and, Zeeland, Hainault, Namur, and Luxemburg. Thus on the death of Philip the Good in 1467 his son, Charles the Bold, found himself in a powerful position, almost rivalling that of Louis XI. himself.

Enraged at the purchase of the Somme towns by the French king in 1463, Charles had already formed a league of discontented French princes, and it seemed as though France was to suffer from a state of things not unlike the Wars of the Roses in England. But Louis XI., unlike Henry VI., was himself an able and astute monarch, in full possession of all his faculties, and in every respect a match for Charles the Bold, who in 1465, having formed the League of Public Weal, besieged Paris. By a subtle policy,

again began, the English lost in rapid succession Normandy, Guienne and Gascony. Finally, at Châtillon, in 1453, the English were defeated, and their French possessions, with the exception of Calais, were lost. When Charles VI. died, in 1461, he had laid the foundations of the absolute monarchy of Louis XIV. The Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges in 1438 secured the liberties of the Gallican Church, and the ordinance of 1439 gave the king a permanent military force. The chief danger that remained lay in the direction of Flanders, where the Burgundian dukes had founded a strong principality.

THE RESTORATION OF THE MONARCHY, 1453-1559

THE prosperity which had, in part, been restored by Charles V. had been followed by "the long anarchy which we call the reign of Charles VI." But under Charles VII., from 1453, the new monarchy can date its definite rise. Charles only reigned for eight years after the final expulsion of the English. Though at his death difficulties still had to be faced before the monarchy could feel absolutely secure, he had, at any rate, by the Pragmatic Sanction of Bourges, founded the liberties of the Gallican Church, and he had freed France from the English domination. Before, however, his son, Louis XI., could assert that the monarchy was supreme in France, the famous attempt of Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, to weaken the French monarchy and to establish a middle kingdom had to be faced. The result of the fatal gift by King John in 1363 of the Duchy of Burgundy to his son Philip had been to set up an enterprising and ambitious family, which by marriage had acquired the counties of Burgundy, Flanders, Artois, Rethel, Brabant, Limburg and Nevers. In various ways, by the middle of

marked by the Treaties of St. Maur-des-Fosses and Conflans, Louis secured the dissolution of the League, though shortly afterwards he made the mistake of visiting Charles at Péronne, where he became his prisoner. Obtaining his release by concessions, Louis was forced for some years to pursue a waiting policy, though in various ways he never ceased strengthening his position at home.

Meanwhile the fortunes of Charles the Bold continued to improve. In 1468 he had married the sister of Edward IV.; he had captured Liège; he had forced Louis XI. while his prisoner, to promise to give to his ally, Charles of France, the province of Champagne. But in 1472 Charles of Guienne died, having, in 1468, accepted Guienne in place of Champagne, and an invasion of France by Charles the Bold ended in failure. From that time till his death in 1477, Charles devoted his efforts chiefly to the formation of a middle kingdom between France and Germany, and in 1474 laid siege to Neuss.

The year 1475 seemed likely to be a critical one for Louis XI., owing to the fact that Edward IV., in alliance with Charles, had invaded France. Luckily for Louis, the Duke of Burgundy showed no intention of joining actively in an attack on the French king, and Edward IV., finding himself without his ally, consented to make the Treaty of Picquigny with Louis and to return home, well paid for all his trouble. On the death of Charles the Bold at Nancy in the beginning of 1477 Louis took action. He occupied the county and duchy of Burgundy, Artois, Arras, and certain Somme towns. To Louis' disappointment, Mary, the daughter and heiress of Charles the Bold, married Maximilian of Austria, who defeated Louis in the battle of Guinegate (1479), and recovered the county of Burgundy. In 1482 Mary died, and Louis and Maximilian signed the Treaty of Arras. By this treaty it was arranged that Margaret of Burgundy, Mary's infant daughter, whose dowry included the county of Burgundy, which Louis had again seized, should marry the Dauphin Charles, and thus Louis could regard with satisfaction the close of his long rivalry with the Burgundian House.

On his death, at Plessis-les-Tours, in 1483, Louis XI. had definitely founded a powerful absolute monarchy, and had established on a firm basis the greatness of France. His enormous taxation and his severe treatment of all opponents, such as St. Pol and Cardinal Balue, were in his opinion necessary for the preservation of France from anarchy, and in spite of his faults he remains one of the great kings of France.

Under his two successors, Charles VIII. and Louis XII., it was quite evident that Louis XI. had built on solid foundations, and that the French monarchy was firmly



Painted by Hervier.

[By permission of E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

"STAY, KING, YOU ARE BETRAYED!"

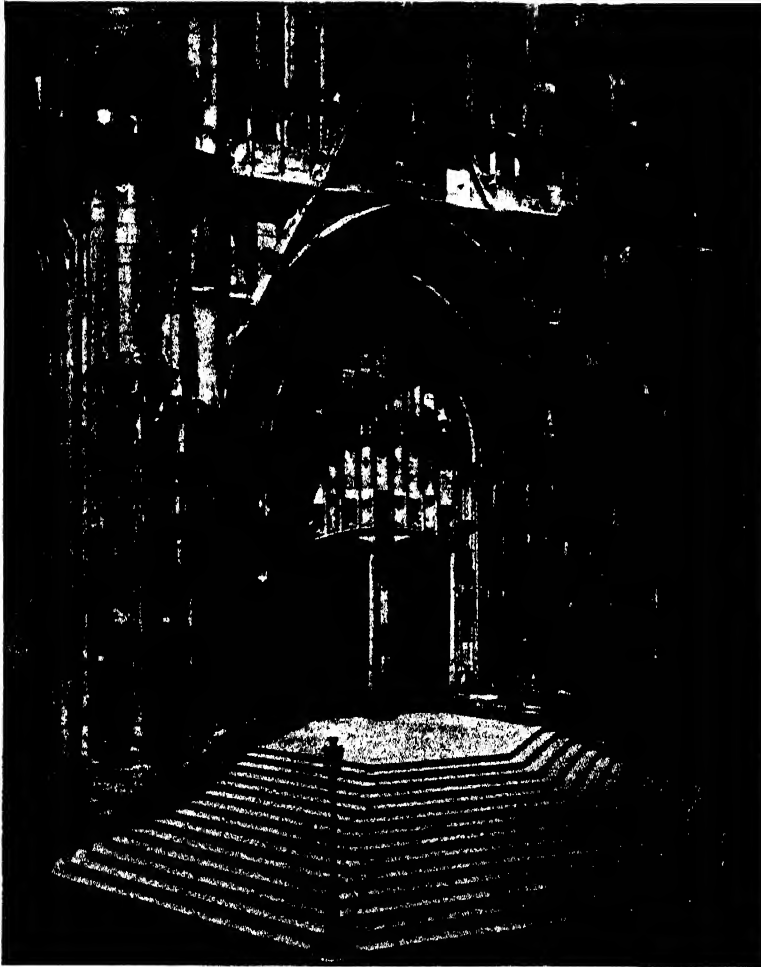
The tragic insanity of Charles VI. was in large measure provoked by a mysterious incident which occurred to him in the forest of Mans in 1392, during his expedition to Brittany. An old man rushed out of the woods, seized the king's horse by the bridle, and uttering the ominous words, "Stay, King, you are betrayed!" vanished before he could be caught. Within a few minutes the king was seized with a paroxysm of madness and killed four of his attendants before he could be put under restraint.

established. That this was so can be clearly realized in reading the account of the proceedings of the States-General which met at Tours the year after the death of Louis XI. The king, Charles VIII., was too young to rule, and till 1492 was under the guardianship of his sister, Anne of Beaujeu.

During her regency a fresh attempt of discontented princes to seize the government was made. Francis, Duke of Brittany, took the lead, and was supported by the Duke of Orleans, René of Lorraine, and others. But Orleans had little capacity. A revolt broke out in Brittany; no aid could be obtained from abroad, and thus Anne triumphed. Nevertheless, the Bretons were united in opposing

annexation by France, though on the death of Duke Francis in 1488 they could not prevent an invasion of the duchy by French troops. The danger to Brittany brought together Ferdinand of Spain, Maximilian, and Henry VII., and in December, 1490, Anne was married by proxy to Maximilian. This circumstance, however, proved no check to French policy, for Anne, besieged at Rennes by French troops, was forced to marry Charles VIII. of France in December, 1491, though Brittany for the time retained its own government and liberties till 1547.

Nevertheless, the action of the French government in invading Brittany seemed likely to lead to war. Henry VII. had, in 1489, made one treaty with the Duchess Anne and another with Spain, and in October, 1492, he invaded France. As neither Ferdinand nor Maximilian brought him any support, he imitated the example of Edward IV. when he invaded France, and on November 3rd, 1492, agreed to the Treaty of Étampes, and consented to be bought off. Charles VIII. himself had no wish to incur the enmity of any European power, for his mind was already set upon an expedition to Italy. He therefore concluded treaties with Ferdinand of Spain and with Maximilian, and in September,



[Photo by]

[Neurstein.]

THE GREAT PORCH OF BEAUVAIS CATHEDRAL.

Beauvais is one of the greatest examples of French Gothic architecture. It followed after Reims and Amiens, the structure having been commenced in 1247. It was planned on such huge dimensions that it may be called an example of ambition o'erleaping itself, for only the apse, transept and central towers were achieved. The last fell in 1573, and the nave was never built.

1494, set out upon his famous invasion of Italy, an event which marked the close of the Middle Ages and the beginning of modern times.

There were two reasons put forward by Charles VIII. for his celebrated expedition. Louis, Duke of Orleans, claimed Milan on the ground of the marriage of Valentina Visconti to the first Duke of Orleans, and in 1491 and the years following Louis was a *persona grata* at the French Court. The other pretext was a claim to Naples, which was derived from René, Duke of Anjou, whose rights had passed to Louis XI. and on to Charles VIII. At first all went well, for no opposition was offered to Charles on his march to Naples, which he reached on February 22nd, 1495, having "conquered Italy with a piece of



Painted by J. E. Leuepven.

THE CAPTURE OF ORLEANS BY JOAN OF ARC.

[By permission of E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

At the head of the besiegers and holding aloft a white banner blazoned with the fleur-de-lys, a figure of the Saviour, and the words "Jesus Maria," Joan made the attack on the bastilles of Orleans. In besieging Tournelles she was wounded and almost captured by the English. When night came small progress had been made, but a soldier seized her standard, and Joan encouraged the soldiers by saying that when her standard tapped the wall they would enter. Shortly after her prediction the wall was touched, and the men climbed over it and rushed the entrance.



Painted by]

JOAN OF ARC RECEIVES HER SWORD.

[J. J. Scherrer.

When Joan had convinced the king of her special call, and the clergy as to her personal character, it was decided that she should receive a commission and be sent to the relief of Orleans. Before she set out a mysterious sword was specially brought for her use from the church of St. Catherine de Fierbois.

allowing Brittany to become independent. Having settled affairs in France, he invaded Italy in August, 1499, asserting his claim to Milan as the descendant of Valentina Visconti. After a campaign in the north of Italy, in which he was aided by Venice, he captured Ludovico Sforza in April, 1500, and imprisoned him in the Castle of Loches in Touraine—a castle closely connected with the latter days of Louis XI. The French king's attempt to imitate his predecessor and to conquer Naples was defeated by the astute Ferdinand of Spain. Though that monarch made the Treaty of Granada in November, 1500, with Louis, by which the kingdom of Naples was divided, the French king keeping the northern portion of the kingdom with the title of king, the arrangement in a few years came to an end, and in 1504 the French claims on Naples were not recognized. Only Milan remained in the hands of Louis. The year before the expulsion of the French by Gonsalvo di Cordova, Julius II. had become Pope, and that personage was destined to have a detrimental effect upon the fortunes of the French in Italy. For the next few years the foreign policy of Louis is full of difficulties, and brings to France no measure of satisfaction.

In 1509 the French who had joined the League of Cambray defeated the Venetians in the battle of Agnadello (May 14th), with the result that Venice lost most of her possessions on the mainland as

chalk." After remaining there a few months Charles began his march homewards. But he found that his rapid successes had alarmed the Italian powers, and that opposition would be offered to him. On July 6th, 1495, he defeated a league organized by the governments of Venice and Milan in the battle of Fornovo, and returned to France without meeting with further opposition. His conquests were soon lost owing to the efforts of Gonsalvo di Cordova, the famous Spanish general. By July, 1496, Alfonso, the son of the dispossessed Ferdinand, King of Naples, had recovered the kingdom, and all that was left to France was a determination on the part of the two successors of Charles VIII. to conquer portions of Italy. In April, 1498, Charles died, leaving the crown of France to his brother-in-law and cousin, Louis of Orleans, who inherited claims upon Milan.

Louis XII., in both his home and foreign policy, proved a worthy successor of Charles VIII. The Italian aims of the latter were continued, and like him Louis did not embark on foreign wars until he had first made himself secure at home. His marriage to Anne of Brittany, the wife of the late king, showed his firm intention of not

well as her fleet. In the war of the Holy League, which began in 1511, Julius failed to take Ferrara, and the French captured Bologna. In October, Ferdinand, Venice, and the Pope united for the recovery of Bologna, and in November Henry VIII. joined the League.

A General Council, supported by French and Spanish cardinals, had meanwhile met in September at Pisa, but was shortly afterwards transferred to Milan. The brilliant victory of Gaston de Foix, in April, 1512, over the Papal and Spanish troops in no way helped the French cause, owing to the death of Gaston in the battle, and shortly afterwards the French evacuated Milan and retired across the Alps. Important results to Italy follow. The council retired to Lyons, Julius recovers Bologna, and is given Parma and Piacenza, and the Medici return to Florence. Early in 1513 (April), Henry VIII. formed a league with Maximilian and Ferdinand for the partition of France, and in reply Louis sends an army to recover the Milanese ; but it is defeated on June 6th at Novara, by Sforza's (the son of Ludovico Sforza) Swiss mercenaries, with the result that the French abandon the Castles of Milan, Cremona, and Brescia, and retire into France. While these events were proceeding in Italy, Henry VIII. and Ferdinand were preparing to attack Louis. Ferdinand seized Spanish Navarre in July, and Henry VIII. and Maximilian besieged T rouanne. On August 16th the French were defeated in " the Battle of the Spurs," while in September their ally, James IV., is defeated and slain in the battle of Flodden. Before long both Ferdinand and Maximilian made peace with Louis, while Henry VIII., by the advice of Wolsey, entered into a close alliance with the French king, to whom he gave his sister in marriage. At the time of his death, on January 1st, 1515, Louis XII. had lost half of Navarre, T rouanne, Tournay, and his Italian possessions. France was, however, prosperous and her people were contented.

The failure of Louis XII.'s foreign policy did not by any means check the intentions of Francis I. to establish French influence in Northern and Southern Italy. The victory at Marignano over the Swiss resulted in the expulsion of Sforza from Milan, which the French occupied, and in the cession by the Pope of the cities which he had taken from the Duchy of Ferrara and from the Milanese. The advance of Francis to Naples was only checked by the appearance of Maximilian at the head of some



By permission of]

[The Autotype Fine Art Co., Ltd., 74, New Oxford Street, London.

JOAN OF ARC TAKEN PRISONER, 1430.

It was during a sortie from Compi gne on the 24th May, 1430, that Joan was captured and, with hands bound behind her, taken prisoner to the headquarters of the Duke of Burgundy. To the discredit of the King of France, who made no effort to ransom her, she was sold to the English.

Swiss troops in Northern Italy. He, however, retired without striking a blow, and in October, 1516, agreed to the Treaty of Noyon which Francis, in August, had made with Charles of Spain, who had succeeded Ferdinand in January, and who in November signed a permanent peace with the Swiss.



Photo by]

THE BURNING OF JOAN OF ARC.

[Mansell & Co.

When the faggots were fired around Joan, Cauchon, Bishop of Beauvais, rushed to the foot of the pile hoping to obtain a confession of her guilt. But looking down at him, she cried out, "Bishop, I die by you," implying that it was his deceit and craft which brought about her ignominy.

England. Meanwhile war between Francis and Charles had broken out, and before the end of the year Sforza was restored in Milan, from which the French were expelled, and France itself was invaded in 1521 by Charles' troops and in 1522 by an English army.

From 1521 to 1556, Spain and the Empire were under Charles V., and France was in danger of being forced into the position of a mere secondary state.

With Leo IX. the French king arranged the famous Concordat of Bologna in 1516, in spite of the protest of the *Parlement* and the University of Paris. Annates were restored to the Pope, whose wealth was thus immensely increased, while the appointment of bishops and abbots was transferred to the king, though requiring Papal approval, and appeals to Rome were restricted. In 1518 the Treaty of London was negotiated by Wolsey with Francis, who buys back Tournay, and arranges that the Dauphin is to marry the Princess Mary. As by the Treaty of Noyon, Francis had given up his claims on Naples, only retaining Milan in Italy, the European world had at last a short period of peace.

Europe was, however, on the verge of new developments which notably influenced the future course of French history. In January, 1519, the death of the Emperor Maximilian, followed by the election of Charles of Spain to the imperial dignity, were events which deeply affected France. Francis had himself made efforts to secure the imperial throne, and on his failure, relations between him and Charles became strained. To prevent the outbreak of a European war, Wolsey met Francis in June, 1520, at the Field of Cloth of Gold, and Charles on two occasions shortly afterwards. War was, however, inevitable, and Charles allied with the Pope in May, 1521, for the expulsion of the French from Italy, and in November with



Painted by

THE ENTRY OF LOUIS XI. INTO PARIS, 1461.

The entrance of Louis into Paris was made an occasion for a great pageant and carnival. He came by way of the Porte Saint Denis, riding on horseback and beneath a canopy, whilst an armed soldier preceded him carrying his helmet, which was surmounted by a crown. The city was lavishly decorated for his coming, and old chronicles speak of many tableaux, which formed a curious medley of secular and religious subjects.

[Tattegrain.]



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

PHILIP THE GOOD, 1396-1467.

Philip, Duke of Burgundy, was a friend and enemy in turn of England, and for their attack on the Flemish fleet he declared war on the English. Philip did much for the industries of Flanders, and was a great patron of literature.

distracted Charles from any continuous attacks upon France. Francis I. was, moreover, naturally aware of these elements of weakness, and not only entered into negotiations with the Protestant princes of Germany, but also into friendly relations with Suleiman. In 1536 the third war between Francis and Charles broke out, and while the French conquered Savoy and Piedmont in February, and repelled Charles' invasion of Provence in July, a Turkish fleet ravaged the Italian coast, and in 1537 Suleiman entered Hungary.

The Truce of Nice in 1538 concluded the third war between France and the Empire, and was confirmed by a meeting between Charles and Francis at Aigues-Mortes. Both Powers returned their conquests, and it was settled that the truce should continue for ten years. It was not till July, 1542, that Francis, in alliance with Denmark and Sweden, entered upon his fourth war with Charles. Hostilities broke out in Italy, in the Netherlands, and on the Spanish frontier. Owing to the failure of the emperor's attack on Algiers in 1541, the Mediterranean was in the hands of the French and the Turks. At Landrecies, in 1543, the French defeated

At this crisis, which began in 1521, in her history France showed great power of resistance, and was aided by a variety of unexpected circumstances. To hamper the English operations she allied with Scotland, while Charles V. found himself much occupied with the Reformation movement, which had burst out in the north of Germany owing to Luther's preaching. Till 1529, however, the expectation that he would be able to partition France seemed to Charles not entirely unwarranted. The defeat and capture of Francis at the battle of Pavia in 1525, followed by the French king's captivity in Madrid, the failure of France in the second war with Charles in 1527 and 1528, ending with the Treaty of Cambray in 1529, and the submission of the Papacy to the emperor—all these events seemed to show that the resources of the Empire were far superior to those of Francis. But the rapid growth of Protestantism was already dividing Germany into two hostile camps, while the invasion of Hungary by Suleiman the Magnificent was another fact which

**MARGARET OF SCOTLAND, 1425-1445.**

Margaret was the eldest daughter of James I. of Scotland and the wife of the Dauphin Louis (Louis XI.), whom she married in 1436 at Tours. They were married at a very early age, and the marriage was an unhappy one.



Painted specially for this work

THE BATTLE OF BOUVINES, 1214

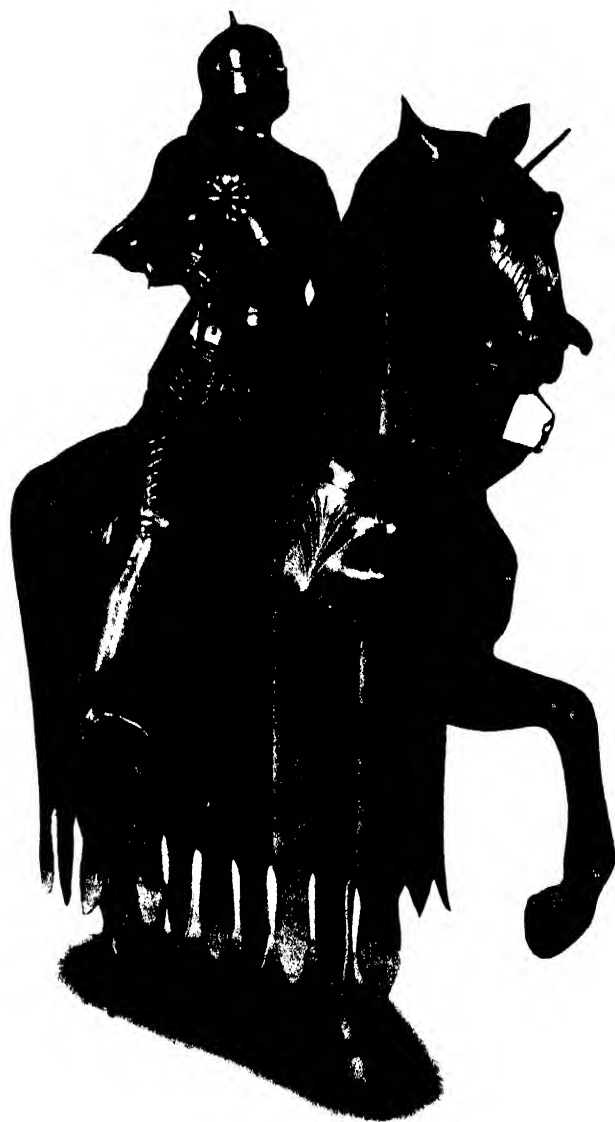
by J. H. Valda

At the first sound of battle, Philip Augustus, who was resting beneath a tree, rose and entered a chapel to pray. Then mounting his horse he rode into the thick of the fight. In front of him were armed men who had hurriedly recrossed the Bouvines bridge from the direction of Hainault. German cavalry charged them, and they were followed by infantry who unmounted Philip. By waving his banner, Montigny brought both foot and horse soldiers to the rescue, and Philip quickly remounted. The allies were routed and the return to Paris was a triumph for the French king.

the forces of Charles, and Francis captured Nice from Savoy. The following year Henry VIII., having in 1543 allied with Charles, invaded Picardy and captured Boulogne on September 14, 1544, while Charles invaded Champagne and threatened Paris. On September 18, however, he and Francis agreed to the Peace of Crespy, Charles surrendering his claims to Burgundy and Francis his claims to Naples, Artois, Flanders, and Guelderland. Henry VIII., however, continued the war till 1546. But it was not long before the fifth war between France and the Hapsburg monarchy took place. Henry II., the successor of Francis in 1547, was violently opposed to the emperor, and in 1552 took advantage of the latter's difficulties in Germany, and seized Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which continued in the hands of the French for many years. The abdication of Charles in 1556 was not followed by peace with France, and success attended the efforts of Philip II. and Ferdinand I. The warlike and ambitious Duke of Guise, who failed in 1557 to retake Naples, did indeed capture Calais from the English in January, 1558; but French armies suffered severe defeats at the hands of the Spaniards at St. Quentin in August, 1557, and at Gravelines in July, 1558. In April, 1559, the Treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis closed the war, France retaining Metz, Toul, Verdun, Saluzzo, and Calais. Philip of Spain married the daughter of Henry II and Spain was left supreme in Italy. The first epoch, which had lasted nearly forty years, of the rivalry between France and Austria thus closed till it was again revived for a short time by Henry IV. and more definitely by Richelieu, Mazarin, Louis XIV., Louis XV., Louis XVI., and Napoleon I.

THE RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE, 1559-1598

LIKE other great religious movements, the Reformation took a political direction in the countries where its influence was chiefly felt. In France that certainly was the case, for there the country was suffering from a period of war fever which had lasted over half a century. In France the Reform movement was chiefly of a Calvinistic character, and its strength lay mainly in the south-west of France. Foreign wars enabled the Reform movement to expand, for the Crown was occupied in dealing with its external foes, while at the same time the periodical attacks on the Reformers from various quarters, such as was implied by the introduction of the Spanish Inquisition by a Bull of Paul IV. in 1557, only encouraged the Huguenots. The peace of Câteau-Cambrésis, in 1558, marked the real starting-point of those religious wars which fill the last forty years of the sixteenth century in French history. At that time the Reformers were well organized, and were benefited by the disorganization into which the monarchy fell on the death of Henry II. in 1559. No period in French history is more critical than that which followed



[Phototype]

FRENCH ARMOUR, 1460-1480.

[Mansell & Co.]

The stirrups and bit of this harness are of sixteenth century fashion, but the legs and sollerets are without addition and in splendid preservation. The toe-caps, which are extremely long, were made in the likeness of the civil dress of the last half of the fifteenth century. Having regard to its decoration, this suit is referred to as "Gothic armour."

the death of Henry II. His successor, Francis II., the husband of Mary Stuart—a marriage contrived by the Guises—was quite unfit to govern France at such a critical time, and the "Tumult of Amboise," early in 1560, illustrates the general discontent. For the movement, which was cruelly suppressed, included many Roman Catholics as well as Protestants. It was quite apparent in December, 1560, when Charles IX. succeeded Francis II., that a complete breakdown of personal government had taken place, due partly to the character of the monarchs who had come after Louis XII., partly to the heavy taxation, partly to the factious character of the nobles, partly to the deterioration of the clergy, and partly to the lowering of the character of the judicature. Moreover, with the close of the Italian wars the religious factor had been introduced, and at the moment when its *personnel* was even weaker than the principle of monarchy the Crown was confronted by the two parties—the Huguenots and the Roman Catholics. For a few months the accession of Charles IX. seemed to offer a chance of general reform—financial, political, and religious. In December, 1560, the States-General met at Orleans and con-



Painted by]

[P. Bonnotte.

THE ORIGIN OF THE MANUFACTURE OF SILK FABRICS AT LYONS.

The trade in silk and the industry of weaving silk at Lyons grew fast under the monopoly granted to the city in 1450 by Charles VII. Many wonderful fabrics were produced, and Francis I. and Henry II. and IV. were patrons of the industry, which had been introduced from Italy.

sidered plans for retrenchment. If only the cessation of payments to Rome could have been brought about, the extravagance of the Court checked, and the Law Courts (the *Parlement* of Paris) thoroughly reformed, the Wars of Religion need not have taken place. But the *Parlement* of Paris turned fiercely against reform, and political reform soon became subordinate to the religious question. The Vassi massacre in March, 1562, was the occasion of the definite outbreak of the first of eight wars, which continued till near the end of the century. Till 1574, when Henry III. arrived from Poland to take the Crown, Catherine de Médicis, the Queen-mother, was the most prominent figure in France. An Italian in character, she showed vindictiveness in many of her actions. She could not understand the enthusiasm which many showed for religion. She had no fixed principles, but believed in the efficacy of diplomacy and compromise. Thoroughly ambitious, she desired to be the most important personage in the State, and, like Louis XI., was always industrious. "A clear and intelligent business woman," is the verdict of the Venetian ambassador. She was now, during the early years of Charles IX.'s reign, the most important personage in France, and showed no hostility to the policy of massacres and forced

conversions. The first war ended in March, 1563, with the Peace of Amboise, made by Catherine with the advice of L'Hôpital. Calvinistic services were allowed in all towns save Paris. It was quite obvious that France would never accept Protestantism, and though Catherine herself was anxious for a long period of peace, Roman Catholic influences were too strong for her, strengthened as they were by the firm attitude of the Council of Trent, and by a feeling of hostility to the Dutch, who had raised a rebellion against Philip II. The second civil war, which broke out in September, 1567, was of little importance,



Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.

[Painted by F. Roybet.

THE MASSACRE AT NESLE BY CHARLES THE BOLD. c. 1472.

Charles, Duke of Burgundy, was a serious rival of Louis XI., and when Louis seized several of his townships on the Somme, Charles invaded France and relentlessly massacred the inhabitants of Nesle. They fled to the church for safety, but Charles rode in at the head of his soldiers, who cut them down on all sides.

and was closed by the Peace of Longjumeau, which left matters as they were before the outbreak of hostilities. Similarly, though the Huguenots were defeated in the battle of Jarnac and Montcontour in the spring and autumn of 1569, the terms of the Peace of St. Germain in 1570 were favourable to them.

The political and religious situation in France was at this time remarkable. If France seized the opportunity provided by the revolt of the Netherlands and entered upon a conflict with Philip II., she would be reverting to a national—i.e., anti-Spanish—policy. As long as civil war continued, the strength

of France was being frittered away when it might be employed against her ancient foe. Such a war would divert attention from the Huguenots, and one result would be to strengthen Protestantism in the Netherlands and in France. The Spanish victory at Lepanto over the Turks in 1571 was indeed another argument in favour of a policy of toleration at home, in order to concentrate the national forces in an attack on Philip II.

But this policy was not adopted. The Huguenot leaders, of whom Coligny was the chief, aimed

at securing political control as well as religious toleration. Coligny, it has been said, was no diplomat, and took no pains to conciliate Catherine de Médicis, who saw her influence with the young king rapidly lessening. Further, he never realized the strength of the hatred felt by the Parisians for the southern nobles. That hatred was shared by the Catholic nobles of Northern France, who asserted that Coligny and his followers hoped to establish a "republican Federalism." The Massacre of St. Bartholomew, in 1572, was therefore in full consonance with Catherine's wish to free the Crown from the influence of Coligny, and it also expressed the Parisian hatred of the southern noble, as well as its determination to root out heresy. The massacre itself is a distinct landmark in French history. It inflicted a blow on the military power of the Huguenots from which it never recovered, and, as a result, their political influence also suffered.

The massacre had destroyed a great portion of "the class which necessarily had political influence." Those who were killed in Paris were "the more



Painted by]

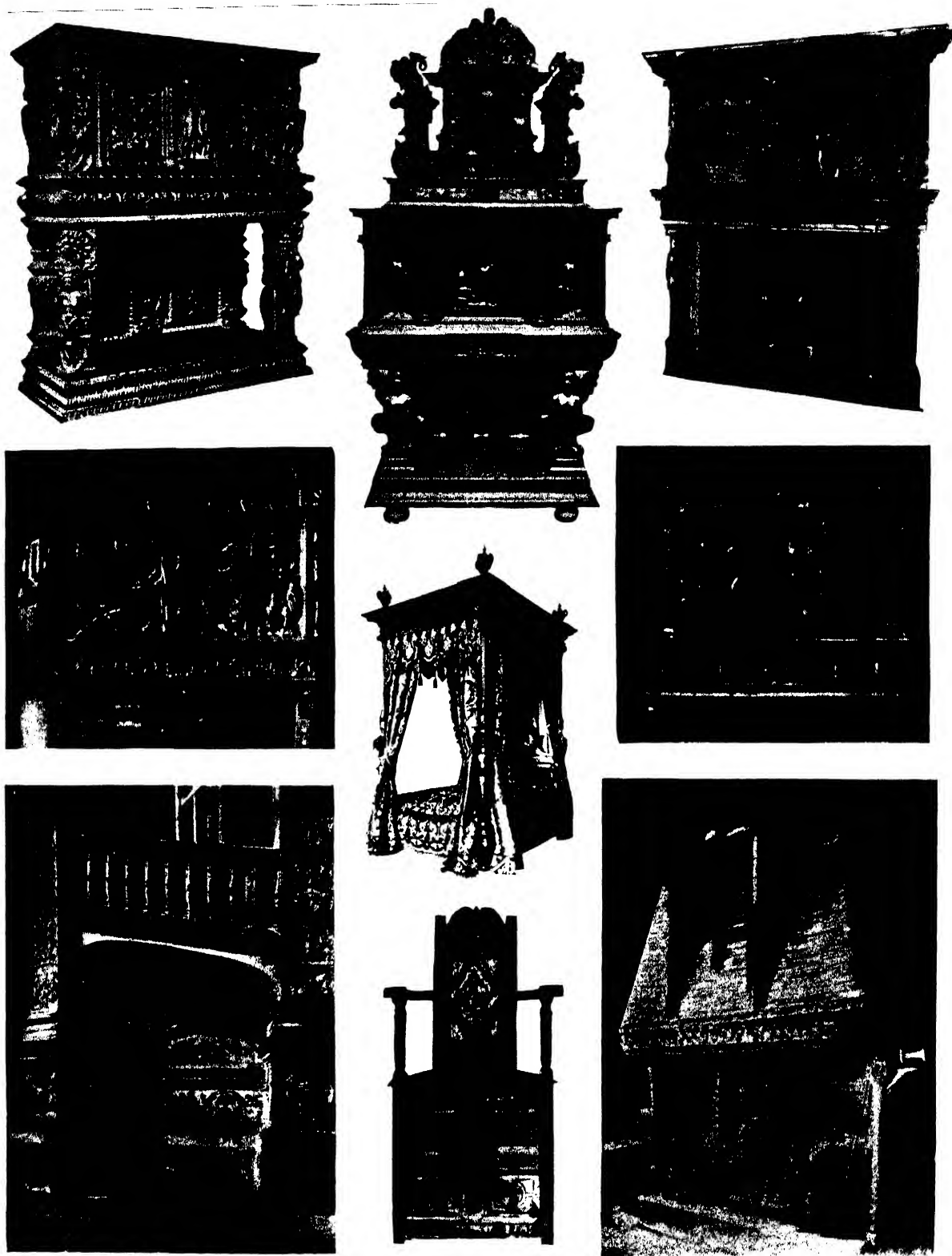
[Petter.

INTERVIEW BETWEEN MAXIMILIAN OF AUSTRIA AND MARY OF BURGUNDY.

Mary had reason to distrust Louis XI., and although he desired she should marry the Dauphin, she was resolutely opposed to it. She had determined to marry Maximilian, and the marriage, which signalized the commencement of the greatness of the Hapsburgs, was celebrated at Ghent on 18th August, 1477.

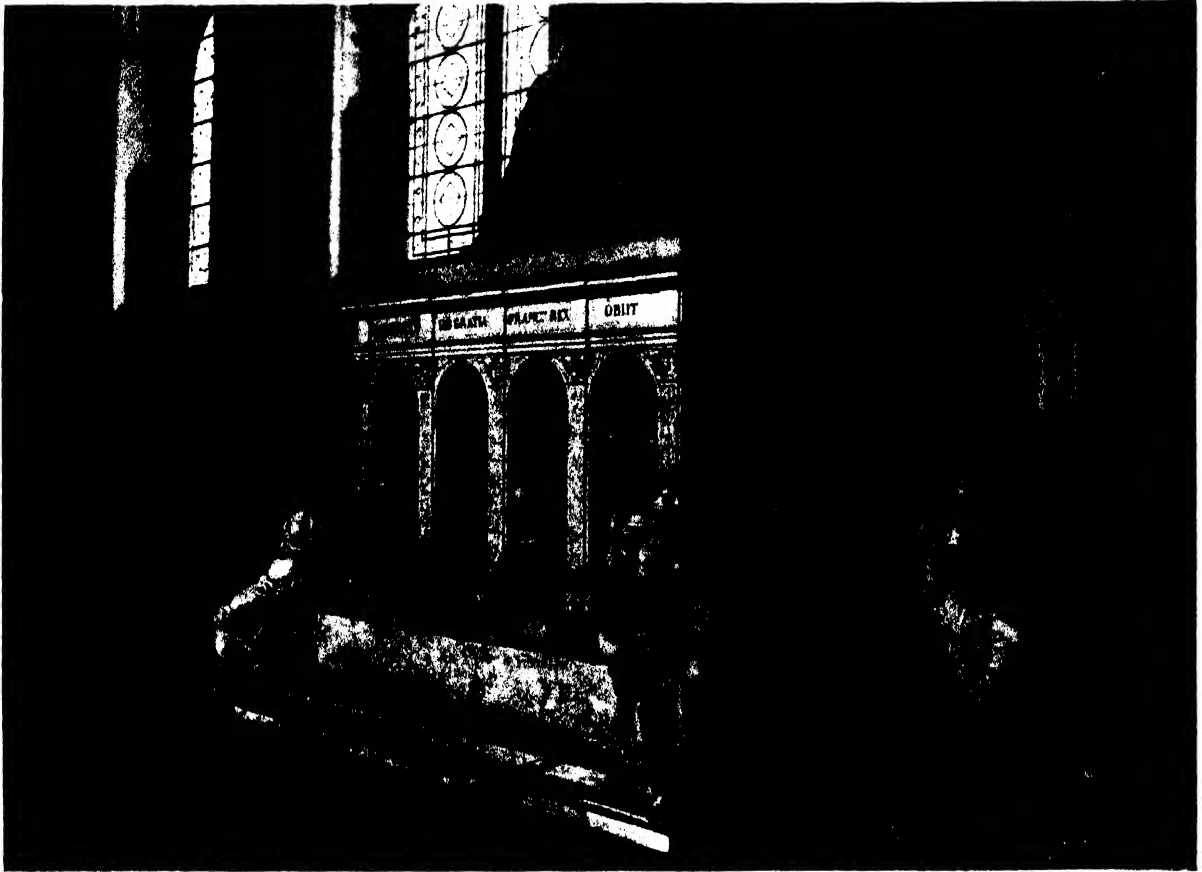
important, the more adventurous, both militarily and politically." Deprived of their leaders, the Huguenot party became completely transformed. Henceforward it aims not at securing political control, but at preserving its existence as a religious body.

Naturally, the massacre led to the outbreak of the fourth war, which is chiefly important as illustrating the adoption of a policy which lasted till the French Revolution. Instead of aiming at controlling the monarchy, the Huguenots now adopt a republican organization, and strive for the establishment of a federal republic, fondly hoping that the republican system would gradually spread throughout France. Anticipating the Huguenot struggle against Richelieu and the Girondist efforts,



FRENCH RENAISSANCE ART.

Reading from left to right: Walnut cabinet of about 1560; walnut sideboard of same period (Victoria and Albert Museum, London); sixteenth century chimney-piece by Hugues Lallemand (Musée de Cluny); Renaissance chimney-piece (Musée de Cluny); bed of Anne of Austria, queen of Louis XIII., in the palace of Fontainebleau; chimney-piece of the period of Francis I. in the Château de Blois; part of the base of the great staircase at the Château de Blois; early sixteenth century armchair (Victoria and Albert Museum, London); early Renaissance fireplace in the Hôtel du Grand Cerf at Le Grand Ancely.



THE TOMB OF LOUIS XII. AND ANNE OF BRITTANY.

The tomb is one of a number of monuments of the kings and princes of France, for which the Abbey Church of St. Denis near Paris is famous. Anne was the daughter of Francis II., Duke of Brittany, and she succeeded her father when twelve years old. She died in 1514. Louis, who was known as the "Father of the People," died in 1515. The monument was executed between 1516 and 1532.

Languedoc and Upper Guienne established two governments, and La Rochelle became the centre of resistance to the Crown. That town sustained a five months' siege, which ended with the Treaty of La Rochelle on June 24th, 1573. The country, however, had only rest for a few months. In February, 1574, the fifth war broke out, being remarkable for the fact that the Huguenot cause seemed to be in an unexpectedly flourishing condition when in May, 1576, Catherine consented to the Peace of Monsieur. It was a triumph in one sense for the Huguenots, for Condé obtained the governorship of Picardy, and thus was within touch of the revolted Netherlands. It also gave the Huguenots freedom of worship, with the restriction that they were not to hold religious meetings within two leagues of Paris. Unfortunately several of the Huguenot nobles had begun to look abroad for aid, and thus incurred the charge of adopting an unnational attitude. But they had definitely secured eight cities, and the promise that the States-General should be summoned. When, however, that body met in 1577 at Blois, its anti-monarchical tone led to its early dissolution, though at the same time its opposition to the Huguenots was no less manifest.

The sixth war, which lasted during a portion of 1577 and ended with the Peace of Bergerac, left things for the most part as they were, and with the exception of a short (the seventh) war, which lasted for seven months in 1580, ending with the Peace of Fleix, the land had rest till 1585. By that time the Duke of Guise had become one of the most prominent Frenchmen of the day. In 1576 a league had been formed in Picardy by a number of nobles, who wished to suppress Protestantism and to control the Crown. In 1584, owing to the death of Henry III.'s brother, Henry of Navarre became heir to the Crown. Consequently, early in 1585 the League of Paris was formed to save the country from a heretic

sovereign. The result was to merge the new league into a general league, which extended over two-thirds of France. In 1585 Henry of Guise made an alliance with Philip II. of Spain, and the Cardinal Bourbon was named as the next heir to the French Crown. In the same year Henry III. accepted the policy of the League and broke off the friendly relations with England which had subsisted since 1570.

The eighth civil war—the war of the three Henrys—(Henry III., Henry of Navarre, and Henry of Guise)—was remarkable for Henry of Navarre's victory at Courtrai on October 20th, 1587, for the setting-up of barricades in Paris, and for the murder of Guise on December 23rd, 1588. His death marked the transference of the guidance of the League from the nobles to the preachers. Unable to enter Paris, Henry III. united with Henry of Navarre, and besieged the capital. The cause of the Guises had been lost when Henry of Guise was murdered, but for a time it seemed that the clergy and the mob of Paris united with Philip II. would establish the victory of democracy and anticipate the events of 1792. The murder of Henry III. on August 2, 1589, saved Paris for a time, but the alliance of the revolutionists with Philip II. called out the loyalty of the respectable classes.

France was passing through a crisis almost unexampled in her history. Under such kings as Louis XI., Louis XII. and Francis I. she had risen to a position of greatness in Europe, when suddenly she found herself divided by religion. The long struggle between Catholics and Protestants had practically annihilated the power of the Crown, and both the Huguenots and the League aimed at objects which, if carried out, would have destroyed the position of France in Europe. While the Huguenots desired local isolation, the League would not only have made the Gallican Church absolutely dependent upon Rome, but would have brought France under the vassaldom of Spain. From these dangers the



Photo by]

[Mansell & Co.

HENRY III. OF FRANCE INSTITUTING THE ORDER OF SAINT ESPRIT.

The Order was instituted by Henry III. owing to the disrepute into which the great Order of St. Michael had fallen through the too numerous additions to its numbers. With all other orders it was abolished at the French Revolution, though restored for a time until its final abolition in 1830.



JOHN CALVIN, 1509-1564.

The great Protestant Reformer was born at Noyon in Picardy. He preached his reformed doctrines for the first time at Bourges, but persecution raged, and he was obliged to leave France. The important part of his life-work was accomplished at Geneva, though his reforms proved too extreme at first. He died in 1564.

and inaugurated a foreign policy which led to the brilliant successes of Louis XIV. He realized that alliance with the Papacy and with the Jesuit Order would render both Protestantism and Gallicanism innocuous. At the same time, he was fully aware that his success as a ruler depended on good administration, and all he looked for in his ministers was ability and loyalty. His chief minister Sully was a Huguenot, and though both Jeannin and Villeroy had opposed him in the past, he recognized their ability and employed them to his advantage. The debt of France to Sully is immense. He devoted himself chiefly to the encouragement of agriculture and to the reform of the financial administration. He established, in 1604, the *Paulette*, or annual tax on the incomes of judicial and financial officials, and on its payment by them their offices became hereditary. Thus another privileged class was allowed to grow up in France, though the object of its institution was to set up a *noblesse* of the *robe* as a set-off to the *noblesse* of the *sword*. Sully, however, abolished a crowd of useless financial agents; he established a system of audit, and he succeeded in carrying out reforms to such an extent, that at the close of his administration he had, it is said, saved the French nation "more than one hundred and twenty millions of francs annually," besides paying off the enormous debt which so hampered the government.

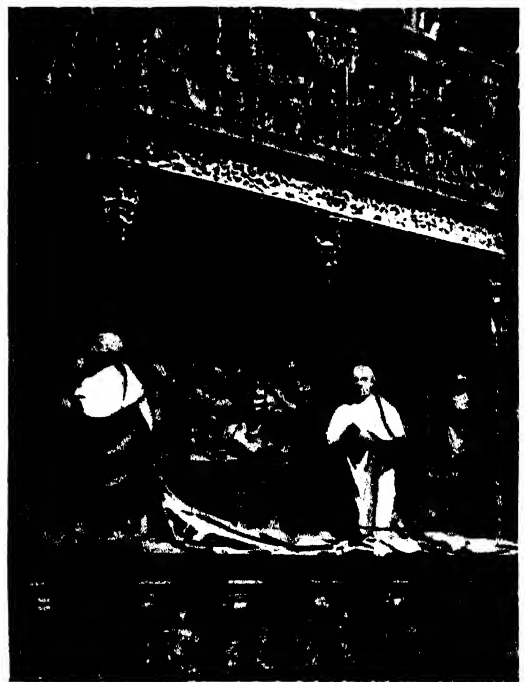
In political matters, and especially in foreign policy, Henry's reign, after the overthrow of the League, forms an important starting-point in modern French history.

appearance of Henry IV., supported by all that was patriotic in the French nation, saved France.

Henry of Navarre was the legitimate monarch. He was, moreover, a born general, and his victories over Mayenne, who led the Paris democracy at Arques on September 21st, 1589, and at Ivry in March, 1590, made it quite obvious that his abjuration of his Protestant creed was all that was necessary for his ultimate success. In 1593 he renounced his creed, and "the acceptance of the Mass gave Henry Paris and Paris gave him France." At the close of 1594 he entered Paris; on May 2nd, 1598, the Treaty of Vervins ended the war with Spain; on April 15th, 1599, the Edict of Nantes, which recognized Huguenotism, was published, and registered by the *Parlement* of Paris much against its will. Henry's acceptance of Roman Catholicism had secured the support of the middle and patriotic party in France; by the Edict of Nantes he had won over the Huguenots. He was now able to restore order out of chaos and to found the Bourbon monarchy on stable foundations.

THE GROWTH OF THE BOURBON MONARCHY, 1600-1689

TILL his death Henry superintended the work of reorganization so necessary after the long period of civil war, and inaugurated a foreign policy which led to the brilliant successes of Louis XIV. He realized that alliance with the Papacy and with the Jesuit Order would render both Protestantism and Gallicanism innocuous.



TOMB OF CARDINAL D'AMBOISE.

Georges d'Amboise (1460-1510), who was raised to the high estate of Cardinal and Prime Minister of Louis XII., aspired to the papal throne without success. He was buried in this magnificent tomb in the Cathedral of Rouen.

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY

(To 1717)

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Death of Joan of Arc to death of Charles VII.	1431	Henry VI. of England crowned King of France at Paris. Joan of Arc burned.
	1432	Chartres taken from the English.
	1435	Great Peace Congress at Arras attended by numerous envoys and by Philip, Duke of Burgundy, in person.
	1436	Submission of Paris to the Duke of Burgundy and retirement of the English.
	1437	Triumphal entry of Charles into Paris.
	1439	States-General convoked at Orleans establishing a permanent army. The nobles, headed by the Dauphin Louis, raise an opposition known as the "Praguerie."
	1440	Overthrow of the "Praguerie." Louis is sent to Dauphiné.
	1441	English driven from Pontoise.
	1443	Charles repels the English at Dieppe.
	1444	English negotiate for peace and a conference is held at Tours. Charles agrees to an armistice of two years. Marriage of Henry of England and Margaret of Anjou arranged.
	1445	Military organization of France completed.
	1449	English adventurers attack and plunder Fougères.
Accession of Louis XI. to death of Charles VIII.	1451	French recover Gascony, for three hundred years English.
	1453	Charles enters Bordeaux. End of the Hundred Years' War. Only Calais and one or two neighbouring towns remain to the English in France.
	1461	Death of Charles and accession of Louis XI.
	1463	Louis ransoms towns on the Somme given to the Duke of Burgundy by the Treaty of Arras.
	1465	The "League of the Public Weal" formed. Demands of the nobles conceded by the Treaty of Conflans. Louis enters Normandy and takes possession of Rouen.
	1467	Death of Philip the Good and succession of Charles the Bold. A new league formed against Louis, comprising the Dukes of Burgundy and Brittany, the Kings of Castile and of Aragon, and Edward IV. of England.
	1469	Guienne given to the Duke of Berri. Louis compelled to accompany Charles the Bold on the punitive expedition to Liège.
	1471	An alliance of the Dukes of Brittany and Guienne against Louis.
	1472	Duke of Burgundy declares war against France.
	1475	Truce between Louis and the Duke of Burgundy.
	1476	Charles defeated by the Swiss at the Battle of Granson.
	1477	The Swiss and the Duke of Lorraine attack Nancy. Charles is killed in defending it. Marriage of Mary of Burgundy to Maximilian of Austria.
	1479	Indecisive battle at Guinegate between Maximilian and Louis.
	1482	Treaty of Arras between Louis and the Burgundians. Maximilian gives his daughter to the Dauphin.
	1483	Death of Louis and succession of Charles VIII.
	1486	Maximilian breaks the Treaty of Arras by invading Artois.
	1491	Brittany and the crown of France united by the marriage of Charles and Anne of Brittany.
	1492	Henry VII. lays siege to Boulogne. Peace made with England by the Treaty of Etaples.
Accession of Louis XII. to the death of Henry III.	1493	Charles reconciled to Spain by the restoration of Cerdagne and Roussillon.
	1494	Invasion of Italy by Charles with 50,000 men and a large train of artillery.
	1495	Charles reaches Naples. Italian princes unite with the Pope, Ferdinand and Isabella, and the Emperor against him. Defeat of the allies at Fornovo. Peace negotiations with Ludovico Sforza and return of Charles to France.
	1496	Montpensier, French viceroy at Naples, is obliged to capitulate and return to France.
	1498	Death of Charles VIII. without heir. The crown passes to the Duke of Orleans, who succeeds as Louis XII. Orleans and Valois reunited to the kingdom. Louis divorces Joan and marries Anne of Brittany, thereby retaining Brittany.
	1499	Alliance with Venice. Louis claims Milan and crosses the Alps into Lombardy. Ludovico Sforza flies to the Tyrol and the French enter Milan without fighting.
	1500	Betrayal of Sforza at Novara. Louis takes him to France. Treaty of Granada. French and Spanish armies to invade Naples at the same time.
	1501	Naples surrendered by Frederick II.
	1502	France and Spain quarrel over the division of Sicily.
	1503	Spanish gain a decisive victory over the French on the Garigliano, and Sicily becomes subject to Spain.
	1504	Louis signs a triple treaty at Blois. 1. An alliance with Maximilian to attack Venice. 2. An arrangement for the investiture of the Milanese. 3. An arrangement for the marriage of Charles of Austria with Louis' daughter Claude, French claims in Italy with Brittany, Burgundy and Blois being given as dowry.
	1505	Louis breaks the third treaty of Blois by giving Sicily to Germaine de Foix on her marriage to Ferdinand the Catholic.
	1508	Formation of the League of Cambrai against Venice.
	1511	Alliance of England, Spain, the Empire, Venice, the Swiss, and the Pope against the French.
	1515	Death of Louis XII. and succession of Francis I. Invasion of Italy and defeat of the armies of the Emperor, Ferdinand and the Pope at Marignano.
	1520	Henry VIII. and Francis meet on the Field of Cloth of Gold, but no alliance follows.
	1521	French invade Navarre. Pamplona captured.
	1525	Battle of Pavia. Francis captured and taken to Madrid.
	1526	Treaty of Madrid to release Francis, who gives up Burgundy on returning to France.
	1529	French driven out of Italy after being defeated at Landrano.
	1532	Alliance of Francis I. with Henry VIII.
	1534	Francis makes an alliance with the Porte.
	1536	Milan seized by Charles V. and Francis declares war on him.
	1542	Francis forms an alliance with the Sultan Solymán.
	1543	Henry VIII. and Charles V. conclude an alliance against France.
	1544	Duke d'Enghien victorious at the Battle of Ceresole. Henry VIII. lands at Calais. Boulogne is taken and Montreuil besieged.
	1547	Death of Francis and succession of Henry II.
	1548	French alliance with Scotland. The Queen of Scotland is taken from Dumbarton Castle to Brest.
	1550	Treaty of peace between England, Scotland and France.
	1551	Edict against heretics.
	1552	French besieged in Metz.
	1553	French in alliance with the Turks capture part of Corsica from the Genoese. Henry II. gains Metz, Toul, and Verdun.
	1557	French are defeated at St. Quentin by Emmanuel Philibert with the aid of the English.
	1558	Surrender of Calais by the English. Mary, Queen of Scots, marries the Dauphin Francis.
	1559	Peace made between England, France and Spain at the Congress of Cateau-Cambrésis. Death of Henry from an injury received in a tournament. Succession of his son Francis II.
	1560	King of Navarre and Prince of Condé arrested for complicity in the Huguenot plot. Death of Francis and succession of his brother Charles IX.

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY—*continued*

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1562	Edict in favour of the Huguenots. Massacre of Huguenots at Vassy. English arrive to aid them. Protestants encouraged by Jeanne d'Albret in Navarre. Turin and other towns abandoned to the Duke of Savoy.
	1563	Peace of Amboise. Calvinists free to worship in their own towns.
	1567	Second Civil War. Condé blockades Paris. Catholics victorious at the Battle of St. Denis.
	1569	Assassination of the Prince of Condé in captivity.
	1571	Protestant Synod of La Rochelle, under the presidency of Beza.
	1572	Massacre of St. Bartholomew. Slaughter of Huguenots in Paris and elsewhere.
	1573	Treaty of La Rochelle with Protestants, increasing privileges.
	1574	Death of Charles and accession of Henry III, who resigns the Polish crown for that of France.
	1576	Henry of Navarre, who had renounced Protestantism to save his life, again leads the Huguenots.
	1583	Duke of Anjou fails to capture Antwerp and retires disgraced to France.
	1584	Duke of Guise and Philip of Spain sign a treaty to exclude heretics from the French throne.
	1585	Eighth Religious War. The Pope attempts to set aside Henry of Navarre's claim to the throne. The English assist Condé and relieve La Rochelle.
	1587	Victory of Henry of Navarre at Coutras.
Accession of Henry IV. to the death of Louis XIII.	1589	Assassination of Henry III, and accession of Henry IV. He is opposed and the Huguenots alone support him. Many claimants to the throne, including the Duke of Lorraine, the King of Spain, and Cardinal de Bourbon.
	1590	After winning the Battle of Ivry, Henry lays siege to Paris.
	1593	To safeguard his position Henry becomes a Catholic and the Huguenots do not oppose the step.
	1594	Allegiance of the Catholic League given to Henry. Spaniards driven from Normandy.
	1595	Jesuits expelled from France. War declared on Philip II.
	1598	Freedom of worship and civic privileges granted to Huguenots by the Edict of Nantes.
	1600	Marriage of Henry to Marie de Médicis. War with Savoy.
	1604	Champlain sent to Canada to found Port Royal.
	1608	Quebec founded.
	1610	Assassination of Henry and accession of his young son Louis XIII.
	1614	Revolt of Condé and other nobles. Peace of St. Ménehould made with them by Marie de Médicis. States-General convoked.
	1615	Second revolt. Condé at the head of the Huguenots.
	1617	Exile of Marie de Médicis to Blois. Edict against the Protestants of Béarnais enforced by the King's army.
	1621	Declaration of independence by the Huguenots at La Rochelle.
	1622	Richelieu made Cardinal.
	1624	Treaties made by Richelieu with Savoy, Venice and the United Provinces.
	1627	Siege of La Rochelle and surrender in 1628, after 15 months' siege.
	1630	Plot to overthrow Richelieu put down.
	1631	Alliance with Gustavus Adolphus.
	1635	War declared on Spain by Richelieu. French Academy founded.
	1638	Spanish fleet destroyed by the French. Coast of Spain and Naples ravaged.
	1639	Disasters to Spain by sea, and on land in Flanders.
	1641	Richelieu aids the King of Portugal and the rebels of Catalonia. Conspiracy of Cinq-Mars.
	1642	Arrest and execution of Cinq-Mars and De Thou. Death of Richelieu. Mazarin becomes prime minister.
Accession of Louis XIV. to the death of Louis XIV.	1643	Death of Louis XIII, and accession of Louis XIV, aged 5. Anne of Austria appointed Regent.
	1644	The Battle of Gravelines won by Gaston.
	1648	Treaty of Westphalia ends the Thirty Years' War between France and the Empire.
	1649	Spanish army enters France at the instigation of the new Fronde.
	1657	Alliance of Mazarin with Cromwell.
	1658	Spaniards defeated by Turme at the Battle of the Dunes. Surrender of Dunkirk, which is given to the English. Furnes, Oudenarde and Gravelines fall before the English.
	1661	Death of Cardinal Mazarin.
	1662	French treaty with the Dutch against England.
	1667	Flanders overwhelmed by Louis, who makes rapid conquests.
	1673	William of Orange forms a coalition against France.
	1674	Louis attacks the Spaniards in Franche-Comté. The Great Elector joins the Allies. Charles II. forced to make peace with Holland.
	1678	Charles II. declares war on France.
	1682	La Salle takes Louisiana.
	1683	Twenty years' truce made by the Diet of Ratisbon, which allows Louis to keep Strasburg, Luxemburg, and other towns united before 1682.
	1685	Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, abolishing privileges to Huguenots.
	1686	The League of Augsburg, a coalition against France, which includes The Empire, Spain, Holland and Sweden.
	1687	Louis quarrels with the Pope and seizes Avignon.
	1689	England joins the league and war is declared against France.
	1692	Defeat of the French fleet at La Hogue.
	1693	Luxemburg defeats William III. at Neerwinden. Naval victory of Tourville over the English off Cape St. Vincent.
	1695	Capture of Namur by William III.
	1697	Peace of Ryswyk ends the war of those engaged by the League of Augsburg.
	1700	Philip, Louis XIV.'s grandson, becomes King of Spain.
	1701	The Grand League of the Hague formed, being a coalition of England, The Empire, Holland and Austria against France.
	1702	War declared by England on France and Spain. Marlborough opposed by Boufflers in the Netherlands. Revolt of the Camisards in the Cévennes. Orange joined to France by Louis.
	1704	The French and Bavarians crushed by Marlborough at the Battle of Blenheim. French and Spanish naval victory off Velez Malaga. Camisards suppressed by Villars.
	1706	Great victory of Marlborough at Ramillies.
	1708	Marlborough and the Prince Eugene defeat Vendôme and the Duke of Burgundy at Oudenarde. Invasion of France. Lille besieged, Boufflers surrenders.
	1709	Villars and Boufflers defeated by the Allies at Malplaquet.
	1710	Philip V. driven from Madrid by Charles III. Vendôme, at the head of the French in Spain, restores Philip.
	1711	Remarkable victories of the Allies at Arleux and Bouchain.
	1712	Peace Congress at Utrecht, but the Emperor refuses to take part. Eugene continues the Netherlands campaign.
	1713	All powers save the Empire agree to sign the Treaty of Utrecht.
	1714	Death of the Duc de Berri. Louis, Duke of Anjou, becomes heir to the throne.
	1715	Death of Louis XIV. He is succeeded by his grandson, Louis XV.
	1717	Triple alliance of England, France and Holland. Alberoni, the Spanish prime minister, seeks to re-establish the ascendancy of Spain.



[Photo by]

THE BATTLE OF MARIGNAN, 1515.

The Battle of Marignan was fought between the French under Francis I. and the Milanese under Maximilian Sforza at Melegnano close to Milan. Francis had brought together an army in the neighbourhood of Lyons to overrun the Duchy of Milan, and his allies in the venture were the Republics of Venice and Genoa, whilst the Duke of Milan was supported by the Pope, the King of Spain, and also by the Swiss. The French were victorious in the battle which lasted two days, and the young King Francis received knighthood for his gallantry from the Chevalier de Bayard.

[Mansell & Co.]



Painted by]

[J. Patrois.

FRANCIS I. BESTOWS ON ROSSO TITLES TO A CANONRY IN NOTRE-DAME.

Rosso del Rosso was a native of Florence and born in 1496. He was a close student of Michael Angelo, and became one of the foremost painters of his day. For his work at Fontainebleau Francis bestowed on him titles to a canonry in Notre-Dame.

In April, 1600, he married Marie de Médicis, niece of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the year following was born the Dauphin, who succeeded as Louis XIII. While Sully was restoring order in the finances and administration, Henry was busy in reducing the nobles to obedience.

Henry's first care was to strengthen the French frontier, and this was partly effected by a treaty made with the Duke of Savoy, who, in January, 1601, ceded Bresse and Bugey to France. Henry thus made himself master of both banks of the Rhone, and Savoy became the close ally of France. Danger to France from the Austro-Spanish House still, however, remained, and it was in consequence of this danger that the "Great Design" was formed, which apparently aimed at a combination of the Catholic and Protestant enemies of Austria and Spain. The death of Elizabeth of England by no means rendered the execution of such a project impossible. But his unexpected death put an end for the time to the schemes of foreign policy which he had formed, and was followed by a period of reaction in France. Henry had indeed inaugurated the foreign policy which was pursued so successfully by Richelieu, Mazarin, and Louis XIV., but much, owing to his untimely death, remained to be done before the French monarchy could be placed on a stable basis.

The long religious wars had left a legacy of unrest, political, social, and religious, behind them which took years to remove. Compromise was the necessary policy of Henry IV. after peace had been made with Spain, and during the rest of his reign he could only indicate the path along which his successors so firmly advanced. Henry had humbled the might of Spain, and at the time of his death was elaborating an attack on the Hapsburg monarchy, which was carried out by Richelieu after 1635, and by Mazarin. With Henry's death, however, a reaction at once occurred, and there are, as one writer says, "few more depressing and wearisome periods of history than the first thirteen years of the reign of Louis XIII." During these years the princes carried on intrigues either against the Crown or against one another.

On Henry's death, in 1614, Marie de Médicis was declared Regent, as Louis XIII. was only nine years old. She at once reversed the foreign policy of the late king, and declared her intention of allying with Spain. Europe thus found itself no longer on the verge of a struggle which would anticipate

by eight years the opening of the Thirty Years' War. The Duke of Savoy, deserted by the new French government, made peace with Spain, while the Dutch and the German Protestants signed in October, 1610, a truce with the emperor. Early in 1614 Louis XIII. was declared to be of age, and in October of the same year the States-General met—the last meeting of that body before 1789. They met just after a rebellion of the nobles under the Prince of Condé, now ended by the Treaty of Ste. Ménéhould; and it is probable that the Queen-mother hoped to strengthen her position by calling together the representatives of the Three Orders. In 1616 Louis XIII. married Anne of Austria, the eldest daughter of Philip III. of Spain, while Elizabeth, the daughter of Marie de Médicis, married the heir to the Spanish throne. But Marie's triumph was short-lived. On April 25th, 1617, Louis determined to take the government into his own hands out of those of the Marshal d'Ancre, who was supported by the Queen-mother. On the marshal's refusal to surrender his sword he was shot, while Marie de Médicis retired to Blois.

Intrigues continued without intermission till 1619, when the Treaty of Angoulême brought about a temporary peace between Louis, the Queen-mother, and the nobles. But no sooner had the agreement been come to than a rising of the Huguenots took place in 1620. Louis XIII., at the head of a strong army, put down the rebellion, and forced the Huguenots to agree to the Peace of Montpellier on October 19th, 1622. The first definite step had been taken in the destruction of the political organization of the Huguenots. Civil order had now been restored in the country.

In 1624 Richelieu entered the king's council, and till his death, in 1642, remained the chief minister of France. His policy was to make the Crown of France supreme by overcoming the nobility, to give France unity by destroying the political power of the Huguenots, and to overthrow the House of Hapsburg. His first duty was to check the power of the Hapsburgs and Spaniards, and in 1624 a French force occupied the Valtelline valley, and so cut the communication between the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. His second duty was to destroy the political power of the Huguenots. Under the Edict of Nantes the Huguenots possessed certain political rights. In 1624 and the years following they were in rebellion, and England sent help to them when they were besieged by



By permission of]

[Messrs. Ryman & Co., Oxford.

FRANCIS I. AND CHARLES V. AT THE ABBEY OF ST. DENIS.

By the intervention of Pope Paul III. a reconciliation was brought about in 1538 between Francis and Charles. The latter came to Paris, and he was conducted by Francis to the Abbey of St. Denis, where he was received with great ceremony. Francis himself showed the royal tombs to Charles.



Painted by

[J. Patrois.]

FRANCIS I. BESTOWS ON ROSSO TITLES TO A CANONRY IN NOTRE-DAME.

Rosso del Rosso was a native of Florence and born in 1496. He was a close student of Michael Angelo, and became one of the foremost painters of his day. For his work at Fontainebleau Francis bestowed on him titles to a canonry in Notre-Dame.

In April, 1600, he married Marie de Médicis, niece of the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and the year following was born the Dauphin, who succeeded as Louis XIII. While Sully was restoring order in the finances and administration, Henry was busy in reducing the nobles to obedience.

Henry's first care was to strengthen the French frontier, and this was partly effected by a treaty made with the Duke of Savoy, who, in January, 1601, ceded Bresse and Bugey to France. Henry thus made himself master of both banks of the Rhone, and Savoy became the close ally of France. Danger to France from the Austro-Spanish House still, however, remained, and it was in consequence of this danger that the "Great Design" was formed, which apparently aimed at a combination of the Catholic and Protestant enemies of Austria and Spain. The death of Elizabeth of England by no means rendered the execution of such a project impossible. But his unexpected death put an end for the time to the schemes of foreign policy which he had formed, and was followed by a period of reaction in France. Henry had indeed inaugurated the foreign policy which was pursued so successfully by Richelieu, Mazarin, and Louis XIV., but much, owing to his untimely death, remained to be done before the French monarchy could be placed on a stable basis.

The long religious wars had left a legacy of unrest, political, social, and religious, behind them which took years to remove. Compromise was the necessary policy of Henry IV. after peace had been made with Spain, and during the rest of his reign he could only indicate the path along which his successors so firmly advanced. Henry had humbled the might of Spain, and at the time of his death was elaborating an attack on the Hapsburg monarchy, which was carried out by Richelieu after 1635, and by Mazarin. With Henry's death, however, a reaction at once occurred, and there are, as one writer says, "few more depressing and wearisome periods of history than the first thirteen years of the reign of Louis XIII." During these years the princes carried on intrigues either against the Crown or against one another.

On Henry's death, in 1614, Marie de Médicis was declared Regent, as Louis XIII. was only nine years old. She at once reversed the foreign policy of the late king, and declared her intention of allying with Spain. Europe thus found itself no longer on the verge of a struggle which would anticipate

by eight years the opening of the Thirty Years' War. The Duke of Savoy, deserted by the new French government, made peace with Spain, while the Dutch and the German Protestants signed in October, 1610, a truce with the emperor. Early in 1614 Louis XIII. was declared to be of age, and in October of the same year the States-General met—the last meeting of that body before 1789. They met just after a rebellion of the nobles under the Prince of Condé, now ended by the Treaty of Ste. Ménehould; and it is probable that the Queen-mother hoped to strengthen her position by calling together the representatives of the Three Orders. In 1616 Louis XIII. married Anne of Austria, the eldest daughter of Philip III. of Spain, while Elizabeth, the daughter of Marie de Médicis, married the heir to the Spanish throne. But Marie's triumph was short-lived. On April 25th, 1617, Louis determined to take the government into his own hands out of those of the Marshal d'Ancre, who was supported by the Queen-mother. On the marshal's refusal to surrender his sword he was shot, while Marie de Médicis retired to Blois.

Intrigues continued without intermission till 1619, when the Treaty of Angoulême brought about a temporary peace between Louis, the Queen-mother, and the nobles. But no sooner had the agreement been come to than a rising of the Huguenots took place in 1620. Louis XIII., at the head of a strong army, put down the rebellion, and forced the Huguenots to agree to the Peace of Montpellier on October 19th, 1622. The first definite step had been taken in the destruction of the political organization of the Huguenots. Civil order had now been restored in the country.

In 1624 Richelieu entered the king's council, and till his death, in 1642, remained the chief minister of France. His policy was to make the Crown of France supreme by overcoming the nobility, to give France unity by destroying the political power of the Huguenots, and to overthrow the House of Hapsburg. His first duty was to check the power of the Hapsburgs and Spaniards, and in 1624 a French force occupied the Valtelline valley, and so cut the communication between the Austrian and Spanish Hapsburgs. His second duty was to destroy the political power of the Huguenots. Under the Edict of Nantes the Huguenots possessed certain political rights. In 1624 and the years following they were in rebellion, and England sent help to them when they were besieged by



By permission of

[Messrs. Ryman & Co., Oxford.]

FRANCIS I. AND CHARLES V. AT THE ABBEY OF ST. DENIS.

By the intervention of Pope Paul III. a reconciliation was brought about in 1538 between Francis and Charles. The latter came to Paris, and he was conducted by Francis to the Abbey of St. Denis, where he was received with great ceremony. Francis himself showed the royal tombs to Charles.

French troops in La Rochelle. In October, 1628, the town was captured and its fortifications destroyed. The Huguenots again rose the following year, but were forced to accept the Peace of Alais, which gave them religious liberty, but no political independence. In 1629, the same year in which the Treaty of Alais was made, the war of the Mantua succession broke out in Italy. The Duke of Mantua was attacked by Spain, and Savoy, and the important town of Casale, which was successfully defended by French volunteers, was besieged. In 1630 French troops crossed the Alps and triumphantly supported the Duke of Mantua. While Richelieu was busy in securing for the French a footing in Italy, a conspiracy was formed at home by the Queen-mother, and was supported by the Duke of Orleans, brother of the king. On March 11th, 1631, "the day of dupes," Orleans was forced to fly to Lorraine, where he was joined by the Queen-mother, and several



Painted by A. Treidler.

[By permission of B.P.C. Ltd., London.]

THE REFUSAL OF HENRY TO SIGN THE TREATY OF PASSAU, 1552.

By the famous Treaty of Passau Protestants within the imperial dominions were accorded equal rights with Catholics. In the picture may be seen a Cardinal who is closely watching Henry's actions, whilst Charles stands waiting at the table.

nobles were exiled. Having put down all internal disturbances, and having strengthened the position of France in Italy, Richelieu was now able to undertake his self-imposed duty of overthrowing the power of the House of Hapsburg. Till 1635 the Thirty Years' War had been to a great extent a religious and German struggle. Gustavus Adolphus had landed in Germany in order to support the Protestants against the Catholic League. On November 16th, 1632, in the battle of Lutzen, he was killed, and from that moment the war rapidly developed into a political contest between rival nations. In 1635 Richelieu declared war on Spain; alliances were made with Sweden and Holland, and the partition of the Spanish possessions in Italy was discussed. The Hapsburgs of Austria and Spain were opposed by France, Sweden, Savoy, and Holland, and to some extent by certain Italian princes. In 1638 the death of Bernhard of Saxe Weimar gave Richelieu the opportunity of occupying Alsace. In the same year the French won a great naval victory over the

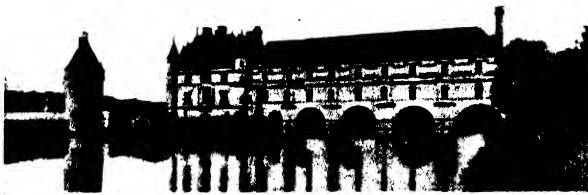


Painted by

THE SIEGE OF METZ.

With an army of 60,000 men and a large train of artillery Charles hoped to avenge French aggressions at the Rhine by retaking Metz. Henry had, however, prepared for a great siege, and the imperial army arrived before the walls of the city, which were manned by a picked garrison under the Duke of Guise. A strong defence was maintained for over two months, during which the enemy were continually harassed by successful sorties. At last, worn down by sickness and loss of men, the imperial army raised the siege on 11th January, 1553.

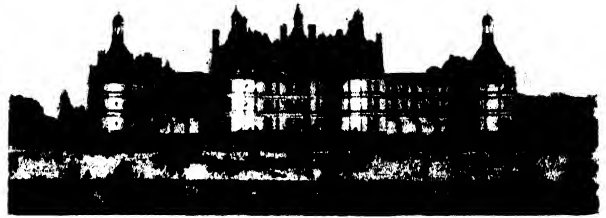
[McInghe.]



[Photos by]

CHÂTEAU OF CHENONCEAUX.

Founded in 1515 by Thomas Bohier, finance minister in Normandy, but confiscated in 1535 by Francis I. It was given to Diane de Poitiers by Henry II. Marie de Médicis built the gallery across the river Cher.



[Neurdein Frères.]

CHÂTEAU OF CHAMBORD.

The present building was commenced by Francis I. in 1526. It was the residence of successive monarchs, and later on Napoleon gave it to Marshal Berthier. It is the most grandiose shooting-box ever conceived.

Spaniards near Genoa, and in 1639 a Spanish fleet in the English Channel was destroyed by the Dutch. At the time of Richelieu's death France was absolutely secure from all danger of invasion, and both Spain and Austria were now beginning to consider the advisability of making peace. Before the end of his life, in 1642, a conspiracy was formed against him by Cinq Mars, who was joined by Orleans. Richelieu executed Cinq Mars, but pardoned Orleans. Shortly afterwards he himself died. His administration was marked by the strengthening of the central government in its control over the whole of France, and he created an administrative system which lasted till the French Revolution. He aimed continuously at the reduction of the power of all bodies likely to interfere with the authority of the central government. Thus he forbade the *Parlement* of Paris to exercise political functions; he checked the provincial assemblies, and he gradually replaced the governors of provinces by intendants, who were royal officers appointed directly by the Crown, and with political, judicial, military, and financial duties. The nobles, still exempt from taxation, were excluded from the royal council, and found themselves with only military duties to perform. Thus, under Richelieu, the cleavage between classes became emphasized, and proved to be one of the chief causes of the French Revolution.

The death of Richelieu on December 4th, 1642, was followed by that of Louis XIII. on May 14th, 1643. A situation somewhat resembling that which followed the death of Henry IV. was created. In each case a period of about fourteen years followed during which the country was threatened with a



[Photo by]

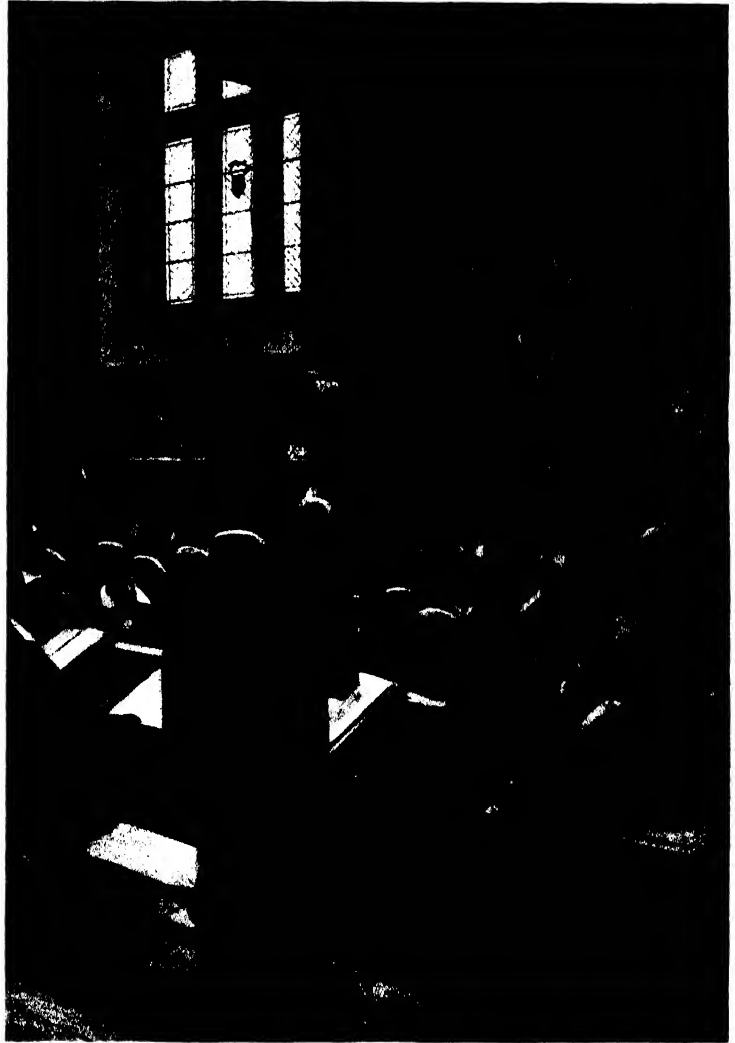
THE CHÂTEAU OF BLOIS.

[Manuelli & Co.]

The château is of great antiquity and historical interest. Louis XII. was born here, and Henry IV. and Margaret of Valois were married under its roof. Here, too, the Duke of Guise was murdered by command of Henry III., and for some time Marie de Médicis was interned within its walls. The château was for a time neglected and served as a barrack, but it has been restored at great cost. The famous staircase, an architectural triumph, appears on the left.

return of something like feudal anarchy. But there were certain obvious differences between the two periods of disorder. In the former period the Queen-mother, Marie de Médicis, took the anti-national part and allied with Spain; in the latter period Anne of Austria supported the real interests of the country and acted patriotically. In the former case there was no able man at the helm; in the latter case Mazarin was the chief minister, and in spite of exceptional difficulties, managed to gain a notable victory for the Crown. Lastly, during the period of the Fronde the *Parlement* of Paris exercised a power and influence which it was not able to wield during the minority of Louis XIII. On Louis' death it supported Anne and placed the government of France in her hands. Her first step, which does great credit to her foresight, was to confirm Mazarin in the position of first minister. But though supported by Anne, Mazarin found himself surrounded with difficulties. On September 2nd, 1643, Mazarin carried out his *coup d'état*, with the result that at the close of his first year of office he was firmly established in his position as successor of Richelieu. Still, he had to walk warily when such powerful men as the Duke of Orleans and Henry Condé were ready to seize any opportunity to secure his downfall. By playing off these men against each other, and by giving Languedoc to Orleans, he secured the latter's support, and by sending an armed force promptly into the provinces, he restored order, and checked all attempts of the nobles to stir up opposition to the government. The chief object of his policy was to bring the Thirty Years' War to a conclusion, for till that was effected it was impossible to place the finances on a sound basis. Successes abroad, such as the battles of Freiburg in 1644, and Nördlingen in August, 1645, strengthened the government, and correspondingly weakened the opposition, so much so that, in September, 1645, a *lit de justice* compelled the *Parlement* to register a number of financial edicts. For some three years after Nördlingen the government was strong enough to defeat the intrigues of the powerful Henry of Condé, who pursued for some time an attitude of unrelenting hostility to Mazarin. However, in 1646 Mazarin conciliated Condé, and the capture of Dunkirk in that year contributed to strengthen the government.

The year 1648 opened in a somewhat dramatic fashion, for the Elector of Bavaria again joined the enemies of France, and in January the Dutch, in order to prevent a permanent French occupation of Flanders, made a definite treaty with Spain. Seventeen years later Louis XIV. endeavoured to carry



Painted by

[J. P. Laurens.

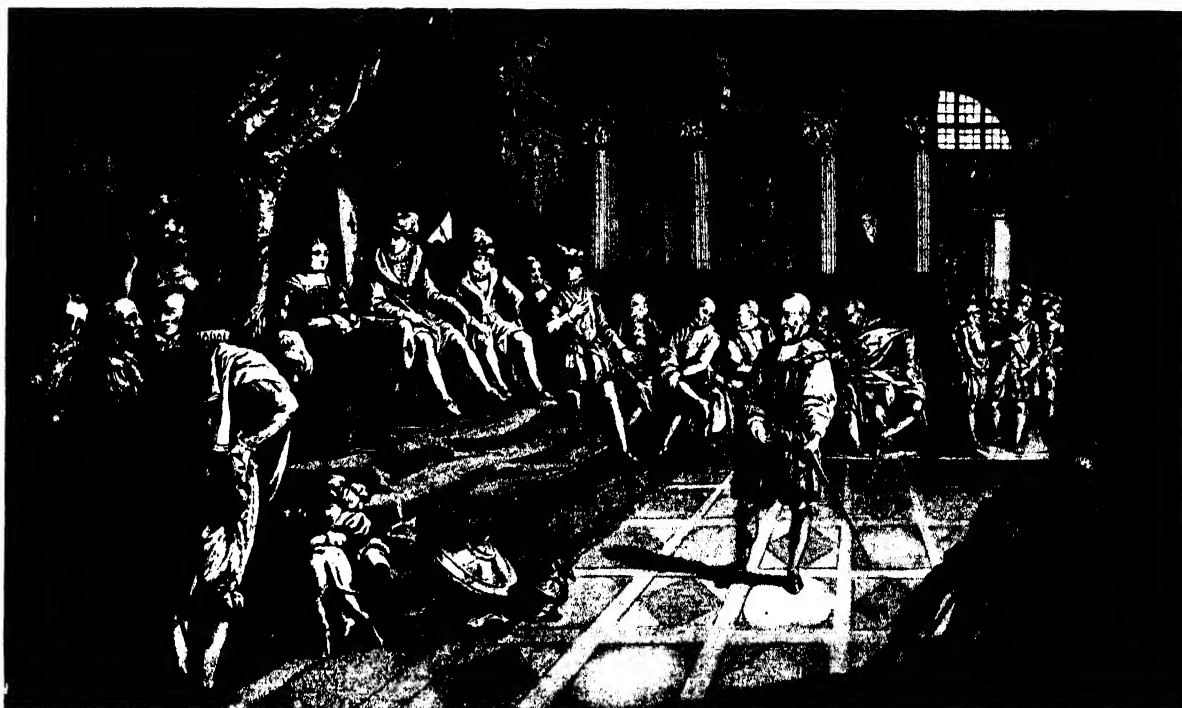
ANNE DUBOURG ACCUSED BEFORE HENRY II., 1559.

Angered by the criminal chamber's decision to commute the death sentence passed on three Calvinists, Henry II. appeared before the united chambers to assist at their deliberations. When summoned to move the censure, Bourdin, Procureur-General, immediately accused Anne Dubourg, nephew of Antoine Dubourg, of holding religious opinions in disparagement of the king's. Dubourg refused to recant, and was burnt.

out Mazarin's aims with regard to Flanders, and in 1700 his seizure of the "Barrier" fortresses proved to be one of the events leading to the Spanish Succession War.

These blows to Mazarin's foreign policy seemed to indicate a prolongation of the war. But Turenne and Condé came to his assistance, and the year 1648 ended in a very different manner from that with which it had opened. In May, Turenne, aided by the Swede Wrangel, gained a considerable victory at Zusmarshausen and invaded Bavaria; on July 13th, Schomberg took Tortosa, and Spain lay open to a French invasion. Meanwhile the Swedes had taken Prague, and on August 22nd Condé overthrew the Spaniards in a most decisive manner at Lens. No victory could have been more opportune for Mazarin, for Paris was seething with revolution, and the treasury was absolutely bankrupt.

On October 24th the Peace of Westphalia was signed. Metz, Toul, and Verdun, conquered by Henry III., were recognized as French territories; Old Brisach and the privilege of keeping troops in Philippsburg were additional gains to France, while she also secured Alsace, though the rights of the



After a painting]

AN INTERVIEW BETWEEN LUDWIG PFYFFER AND CHARLES IX. 1567.

[By Lichetau.

The persecution endured by the Protestants of Meaux led them to conspire against Charles IX. and his mother. In the picture Ludwig Pfyffer, who was the head of the Swiss mercenary troops and a reactionary in religious matters, is seen persuading Charles to trust himself to the Swiss Guards. Charles and his court successfully escaped to Paris.

imperial princes remained a source of controversy for many years. No peace was made between France and Spain, and the war between these two powers continued for another twelve years. Apparently Spain was in no condition to continue hostilities, for while the French occupied Roussillon and Cerdagne, Catalonia, aided by French troops, was in rebellion, Flanders seemed likely to be overrun by French armies, and Portugal was now independent. Mazarin, under these circumstances, was justified in expecting that Spain would shortly be defeated and forced to make peace, in which case he anticipated that the Treaty of Münster, signed in January, 1648, between the Dutch and Spain, would be cancelled.

Moreover, as long as William II., Stadtholder of the United Provinces, lived, Mazarin hoped that together they might check the growth of Republicanism which was apparent in France, England, and Holland, and that as a step towards its overthrow they would unite in effecting the restoration of the Stuarts. But William's death in 1650 put an end to these schemes, and Mazarin found that all his efforts were required to defeat a new combination. On March 4th, 1649, the Treaty of Rueil between the government and the old or parliamentary Fronde had been arranged, and the *Parlement's* right



Painted by

THE ENGLISH EMBASSY DURING THE MASSACRE OF ST. BARTHOLOMEW.

The massacre began in Paris on St. Bartholomew's Day, 24th of August, 1572. The ghastly crime was instigated by Catherine de Médicis. After discussing the matter with such leaders as the Marsha de Tavannes, Henry of Guise and the Duke of Anjou, she persuaded Charles that a massacre of the Huguenots was necessary for the public welfare, and he forthwith arranged the manner of its execution. The massacre lasted till 17th September and in the provinces till 3rd October. It was impossible to restrain the Catholics when once the signal had been given. The English Embassy became a refuge for all who were fortunate enough to escape.

[Philip H. Calderon, R.A.]

to take some part in State affairs was recognized. But the treaty was merely a truce, for the main object of the Frondeurs, the expulsion of Mazarin from France, was not effected. In August, 1649, the Court returned to Paris, only to find that a new Fronde was in process of formation. The old or parliamentary Fronde had indeed set out, like the English Parliament in 1640, with some serious projects of reform. But the new Frondeurs had no such serious objects, and no liking for the *Parlement* of Paris. Its members had no patriotism, and were little else than mere intriguers who wished to expel Mazarin and control the government. The new Fronde was led by Condé—that brilliant soldier—who had no real patriotism, as was seen by his alliance later with Spain, and no



Painted by E. Debat-Ponson.

[By permission of Braun et Cie.

CATHERINE DE MÉDICIS SEES SOME OF THE VICTIMS OF THE MASSACRE.

At daybreak following St. Bartholomew's Day the streets of Paris presented a terrible sight. The dead lay everywhere, and the Louvre itself was the scene of systematic slaughter. Huguenots who happened to be there were called forth and struck down by the halberds of soldiers who were waiting for them. Catherine and her court are seen emerging from the palace to gaze at the awful work.

political wisdom. The other most important personage was the intriguing and versatile Cardinal de Retz, who posed as a demagogue, and had vast influence with the mob in Paris. At first Mazarin felt strong enough to strike vigorously, and on January 10th, 1650, carried out a *coup d'état*, arresting Condé, Conti and Longueville, the three leaders of the new movement, and imprisoning them at Vincennes. A stormy and complicated period followed, but though Turenne, who had joined the Spaniards, was defeated in the battle of Réthel on December 15th, 1650, Mazarin decided to retire from France in March, 1651. His retirement was a sagacious move. The cause of the three imprisoned princes was taken up by the *Parlement* of Paris; the old and new Frondeurs had united; de Retz and Orleans were now the Cardinal's opponents.



Painted by] [Rarestegni.
GASPARD DE GOLIGNY, 1519-1572.

Admiral of France and a great Huguenot leader. His assassination was attempted at the instigation of Catherine de Médicis, who feared his influence and the friendship of Charles IX. for him.

Mazarin. On September 7th, 1651, Louis XIV. came of age, and from that time all loyal men in France gradually united in favour of the young king.

Realizing that a new situation detrimental to his personal interests was now created, Condé threw himself into rebellion, and civil war ensued. A serious crisis had thus been reached, for Condé was an able soldier, and France was torn by factions. But Turenne had now returned to his allegiance, and in command of the royal troops he defeated the rebels at Jargeau and Étampes. Louis XIV. was thus able to return to Paris in October, 1652, and on February 3rd, 1653, Mazarin, in company with Louis, entered the capital. The Fronde was now crushed, owing to the divisions among the nobles and the generalship of Turenne. The work before Mazarin was, however, serious. The finances required careful

rehabilitation, and, above all, the war with Spain had to be brought to an end as soon as possible. His immediate anxieties about finance were to some extent freed by his allotment into the capable hands of Fouquet of the whole management of loans. He was thus able, after the close of 1654, to devote his chief attention to the overthrow of Spain. Condé was still an active partisan of Spain, and it was only through the skill of Turenne that the prince's audacious attempt to capture Paris in 1653 was defeated. By the end of 1654 Condé had been driven into Flanders, and the tide of Spanish successes had been checked by the capture of Quesnoi, Binche, and Clermont. On June 7th,



Painted by] [F. Clouet.
CATHERINE DE MÉDICIS, 1519-1589.

Daughter of Leonardo de Médicis, Duke of Urbino, and wife of Henry II. She was cruel and tyrannical in disposition, and was responsible for the massacre of St. Bartholomew's Day, 1572.



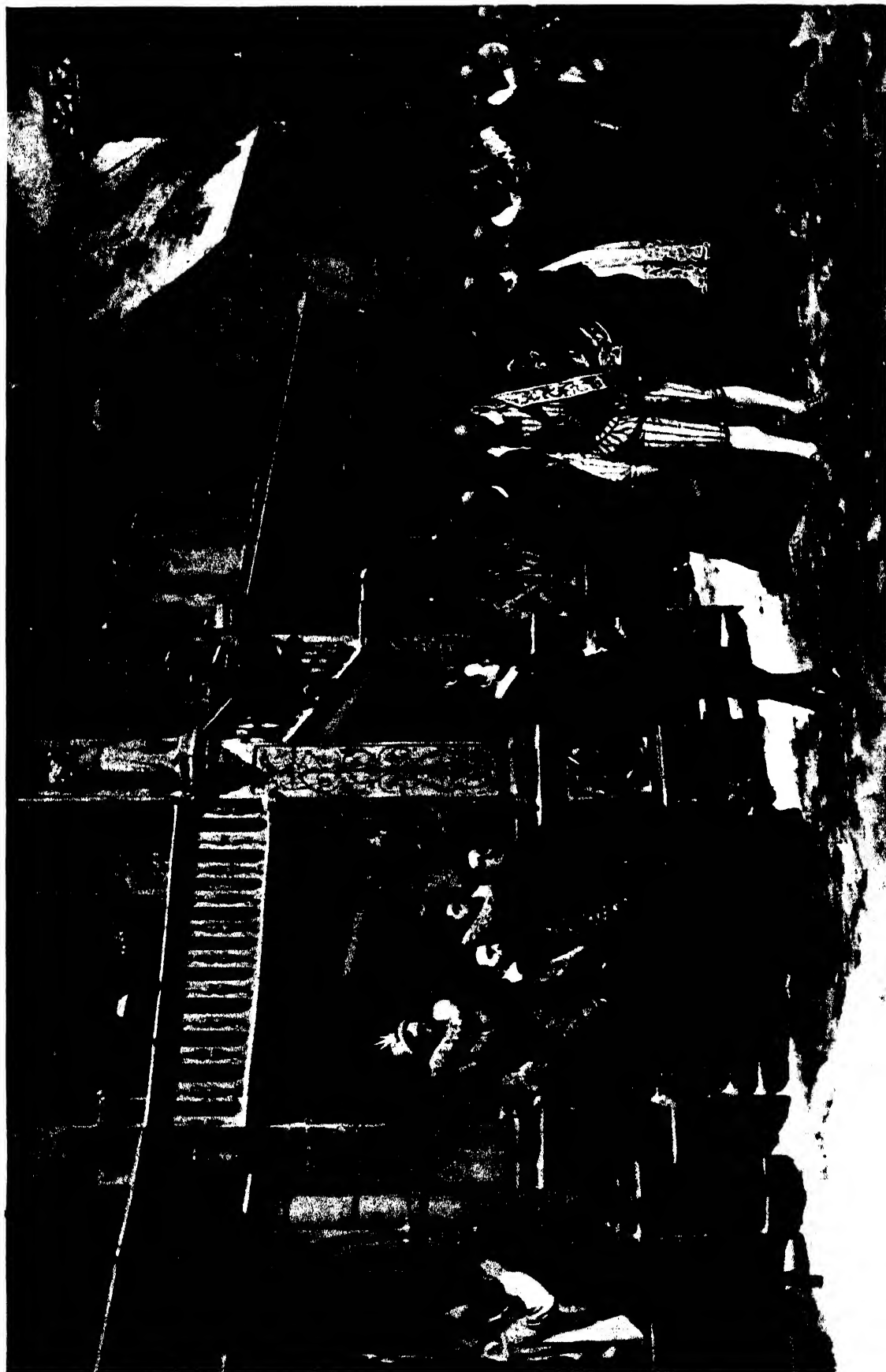
Painted by] [F. Clouet.
ELIZABETH OF AUSTRIA, 1554-1592.

Daughter of Maximilian II., Emperor of Austria, and wife of Charles IX. She is described as being gentle and modest in disposition and one who never shared affairs of state with her husband.



Attributed to] [F. Clouet.
MARGUERITE OF VALOIS, 1553-1615

Daughter of Henry II. and Catherine de Médicis. She married Henry IV., but the union was dissolved in 1599. Renowned for her beauty and her interest in art and literature.



From the painting by Comte

HENRY III. AND THE DUKE OF GUISE AT BLOIS.

[In the Louvre, Paris.]

Henry, Duke of Guise, knew well how to profit by his popularity, and his dictation of a Treaty of Union in July, 1588, to Henry III., following the latter's flight from Paris to Chartres, was typical of the means by which he sought to disparage the person of Henry. The indignities to which Henry had submitted appeared likely to bring about his dethronement, so he sought to rid himself of the duke. A trap was set during the meeting of the States-General at Blois, and the duke was stabbed by guards on his way to the king's room on the 25th of December, 1588.

1654, Louis XIV. was solemnly crowned, and the same month saw the capture of Arras, "one of the gems of the Spanish monarchy." The next most important matter was the recovery of Gravelines, Dunkirk, and Mardyck. For this purpose the employment of a fleet would be most advantageous. Already, in January, 1654, Mazarin had begun his definite attempt to obtain an English alliance. Spain was also endeavouring to gain the support of Cromwell, and negotiations were prolonged. In January, 1655, the massacre of many Vaudois by the Duke of Savoy caused excitement in England, but Mazarin's energetic action stopped the persecution, and in the end contributed to bring about the Treaty of Westminster in November, 1655. England at once declared war upon Spain, and on March 28th, 1657, made a close offensive and defensive alliance with France.

With the aid of English troops Mardyck was recaptured in October, 1657; on June 14th, 1658, the allies defeated the Spaniards in the Battle of the Dunes, and on June 23rd Dunkirk was taken. By his treaty with England Dunkirk was left in the hands of Cromwell, but its capture had enabled the French army under Turenne to invade Flanders and to seize several important places. Towards the close of 1658 the Spaniards made overtures for peace, and on November 7th, 1659, the Peace of the Pyrenees was signed. France gained Roussillon, the greater portion of Artois, and portions of Flanders, Luxemburg, and Hainault. She also secured Conflans, the Duchy of Bar, the County of Clermont, and some other places. Her retention of Alsace and Pinerolo proved of no little importance during the later wars of the reign of Louis XIV. These, the principal terms of the final treaty, had been already discussed in the previous June, when provision was made for the marriage of Louis XIV. to the Spanish Infanta, it being settled that the princess should renounce her rights to the Spanish succession.



After the painting]

HENRY IV. AMONGST HIS PEOPLE.

[By A. Mengant.]

The picture represents a small but pleasing incident in the life of Henry IV. Having lost his way in the forest of Fontainebleau, he accepts the hospitality of Michau, a miller, who drinks the king's health unaware of the identity of his guest.



Photo by Leep Freres]

HENRY IV. BEFORE PARIS.

[From a tapestry at the Chateau at Pau.]

Henry of Navarre was recognized as King of France under the title Henry IV., after the assassination of Henry III., the last of the Valois line, on August 2nd, 1589. He was asked by the Catholic nobles to renounce his heresy and embrace Catholicism, but refused to do more than submit to the instruction of a national council. As a result of his tenacious hold upon Protestantism Henry was engaged in warfare with the Catholic League and more than once reached the outskirts of Paris without being able to enter.

Although France had emerged triumphantly from her struggle with Spain, her internal condition was most unsatisfactory. Hopeless disorder characterized her financial administration, and the home administration generally was oppressive and corrupt. Had not the charge of the finances been entrusted to Colbert shortly after Mazarin's death, it is not improbable that France might have been faced with a situation in some respects similar to that of 1789. On Mazarin's death, in March, 1661, the control of the finances remained in the hands of Nicholas Fouquet, who definitely aimed at assuming the position with regard to the royal power similar to that which Richelieu and Mazarin had held. But Louis XIV. had no intention of subjecting himself to a new master, and before the year 1661 was over Fouquet had fallen and Colbert was entrusted with the management of the finances. His appointment not only saved France from all danger of bankruptcy, but owing to his restoration of order in the financial administration, and to his reforms and remedial measures, Louis XIV. was enabled to enter upon his ambitious and expensive foreign policy. Within ten years of his appointment Colbert performed a



From the painting]

THE ENTRY OF HENRY IV. INTO PARIS, MARCH 22nd, 1594.

[By Gerard.

On July 23rd, 1593, Henry finally decided to become a Catholic, and at St. Denis he abjured his Calvinistic errors on his knees. Eight months later he entered Paris by the Porte Neuve at four o'clock in the morning at the head of five thousand chosen troops. The Duke de Brissac, Governor of Paris, had been induced to surrender by the promise of preferments and a great pension.

work somewhat similar to that carried out by Choiseul during the seven years succeeding the Peace of Paris in 1763.

But while Choiseul was forced to confine his chief efforts to the restoration of the navy and to military reforms, Colbert established prosperity throughout France by means of the Protective system. Home trade and manufactures were encouraged, corn exportation was forbidden; the establishment of colonies in America, Africa, and Madagascar was supported; numerous trading companies were formed. Till 1672 France had an unequalled opportunity of establishing her commercial supremacy in all parts of the known world. That she preferred to follow a policy of military conquest which led eventually to colonial and commercial losses was due, in the first place, to Louis XIV. himself.

"The year 1672," it is said, "saw Louis XIV. at the height of his grandeur." That this was so is due to the fact that during the years from the death of Mazarin to the opening of the Dutch war, Louis' foreign policy, though in part successful, had not necessitated any long and expensive wars. In many respects he had secured easy triumphs, but all calculated to place France in a foremost position among European nations. French arms had also contributed to the victory of the Austrians over the Turks in the battle of St. Gothard in 1664; while in 1662 the Papacy, in consequence of an insult offered to

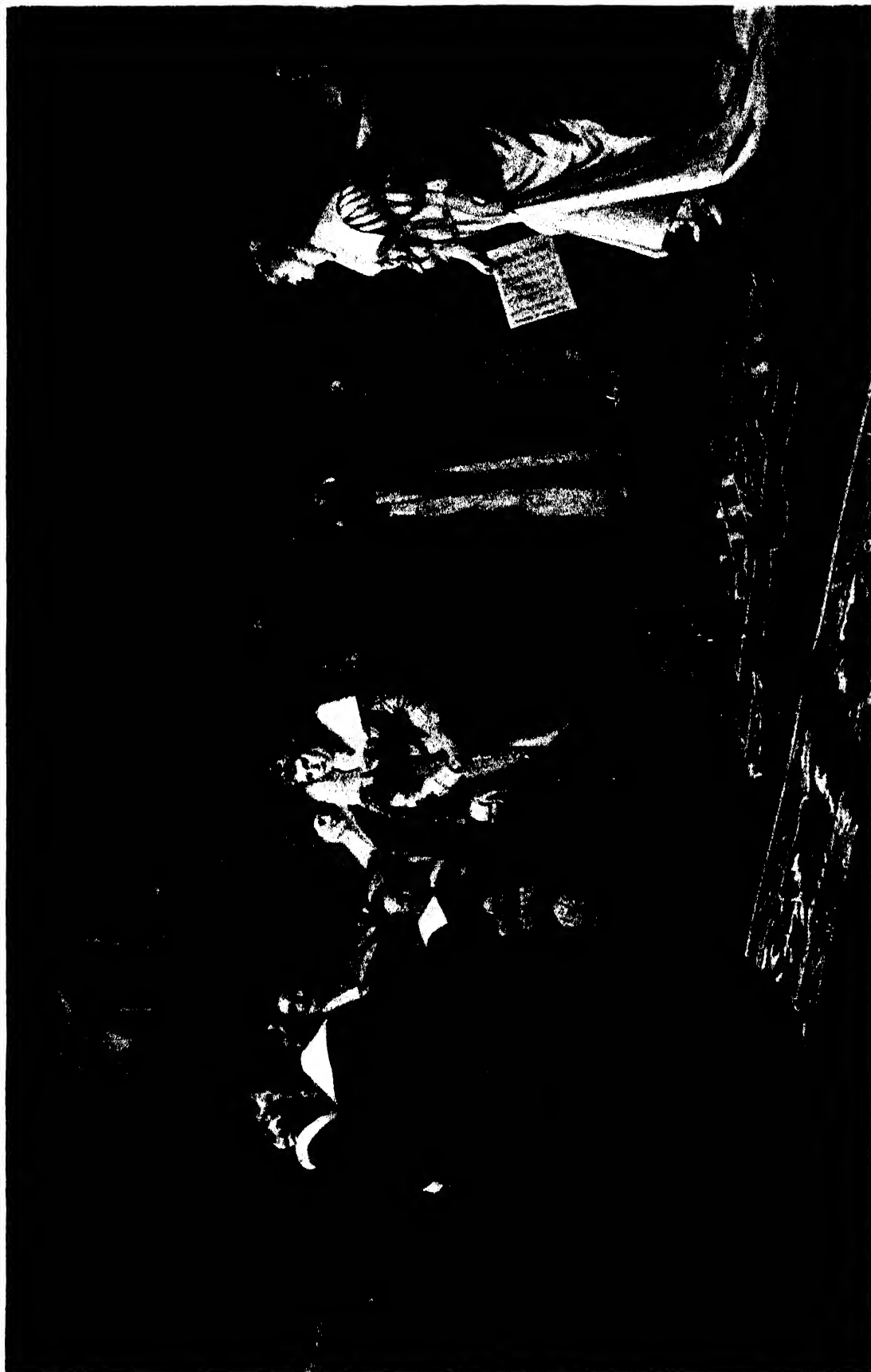


From the painting by Rubens.

[Now in the Louvre, Paris.]

THE MARRIAGE BY PROXY OF MARIE DE MÉDICIS.

After the Court of Rome had dissolved his marriage with Marguerite of Valois Henry IV. in 1600 made a treaty of marriage with Marie de Médicis, daughter of the Grand Duke of Tuscany. For political reasons the marriage was celebrated by proxy on October 5th, 1600, the princess and her sumptuous train only landing at Marseilles in the following month. She was met by Henry at Lyons. The eldest son, born on September 27th, 1601, afterwards became Louis XIII.



Painted by J. Leisten.

A CONCERT GIVEN BY CARDINAL RICHELIEU.

Richelieu's first appearance at the Court was as a secretary of state to the king, a position obtained by intrigue and faithful service to his patron, Concini. His income on first coming to Court was 25,000 livres from his benefices, but towards the end of his life it reached 3,000,000 livres! He loved the outward signs of wealth and power, and built the Palais Royal in Paris, and another palace at Rueil. Though he himself lived simply, his entertainments were lavish and his table of the best.

[Copyright B.P.C. Ltd., London.]

the French envoy in Rome by the Pope's Corsican guards, had been compelled to make an ample apology. Moreover, Louis had effected the purchase of Dunkirk in 1662, and henceforward that seaport proved an admirable harbour for French warships.

These successes during the early years of his personal government somewhat naturally encouraged Louis XIV., on the occasion of the death of Philip IV. of Spain in September, 1665, to bring forward a claim on behalf of his wife to the possession of the Low Countries. The claim was made in virtue of the Law of Devolution—a law which only had reference to a local custom in Brabant. So in any case the sovereignty of the Low Countries was not affected by it. A mass of arguments on both sides was produced by a number of writers, but the matter was brought to a head by the invasion of Flanders in the summer of 1667 by a French army under Turenne. Little resistance could be offered, and the Spanish Netherlands were practically conquered before Europe could take any steps to resist the invasion. In 1667 Holland was at war with the government of Charles II., and De Witt at once took steps to



Painted by]

RICHELIEU ON THE DYKE AT LA ROCHELLE

[Henri Motte.

La Rochelle sustained a second siege in the reign of Louis XIII. Shipping and commerce had been interfered with on all sides by the Huguenots, and Richelieu resolved on its final subjugation. It was during this siege that he built the famous dyke which shut off the town from the open sea.

bring about peace with England, so as to be able to secure her assistance in opposition to the schemes of Louis XIV.

On May 15th, 1668, the famous Triple Alliance was formed by England, Holland, and Sweden, and Louis found himself confronted by a powerful league. Early in the year his troops had occupied Franche Comté, and his position seemed a strong one. But he had already made with the Emperor Leopold a secret partition treaty, which in the event of the death of Charles, the King of Spain, would put him in possession of all the Spanish Netherlands. Accordingly he accepted his apparent diplomatic defeat, and agreed to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, which he signed with Spain on May 29th, 1668. By this treaty France withdrew from Franche Comté, but acquired certain (twelve) fortresses with their districts within the Netherlands themselves. By these additions to his kingdom the French frontier on its most undefended side was greatly strengthened, and Paris was rendered secure from invasion. For the moment, however, Louis' ambitious schemes had been checked, and Holland, under De Witt, had inflicted upon him a diplomatic defeat. To Louis, with his strong monarchic and religious views, the defeat was intensified by the fact that the Dutch were republicans and Protestants, and he never ceased

during the next four years to form plans for the complete destruction of the insolent republicans. The first step towards the consummation of this policy was to break up the Triple Alliance, and accordingly Louis spent the years preceding his famous Dutch war in forming alliances and in bringing about a dissolution of the League which had so unexpectedly defeated his aims in 1668.

In 1672 Louis invaded Holland, and the outbreak of the war found him "at the height of his glory." His treasury was well filled, his army was the best in Europe, his navy rivalled that of England. During the years immediately following the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle he had broken up the Triple Alliance. In 1670 the Secret Treaty of Dover had bound Charles II. to Louis; in April, 1672, Sweden had returned to its ancient alliance with France. The Emperor had already promised not to aid the enemies of Louis, and most of the chief princes of Germany were his vassals. Poland was his subsidized ally; from Spain he had nothing to fear. So far no serious misfortune had visited him, and his Court was the most brilliant in Europe. In all parts of Europe his diplomacy



Painted by]

RICHELIEU ON THE RHONE.

[Hippolyte Delaroche.

Cinq-Mars' conspiracy had as its object the downfall of Richelieu. He was incriminated by a secret treaty made with Spain by which he engaged in return for a subsidy and troops to restore to peace what France had taken. De Thou, agent of Cinq-Mars, was captured and taken to Lyons in a boat behind that of Richelieu. The conspirators were beheaded at Lyons on the 12th of September, 1642.

had been successful, and his ambassadors were the most capable negotiators in existence. Thanks to Louvois' efforts, he was able to launch upon Holland the most powerful and the best equipped army in Europe, under able generals, of whom one, Turenne, had already had much military experience. There seemed no reasonable doubt that Holland would be easily vanquished, and that accomplished, French supremacy in Europe would be unquestioned. At the same time, rapidity of action was necessary, for public opinion in England was an uncertain factor, and Brandenburg "remained stubbornly aloof."

The blow fell on the Dutch in May, when the French armies invaded Holland, meeting with little resistance. Luckily for the Dutch, Louis did not allow Condé to seize Amsterdam till the capture of Rotterdam and some small forts had been effected. The delay gave De Witt time to cut the dykes. On June 7th De Ruyter defeated the combined French and English fleets, and Amsterdam was safe. Even now had Louis been willing to grant reasonable terms he might have secured Maestricht, which would have enabled him to dominate the Spanish Netherlands.

But Louis insisted on terms which no country under any circumstances could accept. The war soon developed into a great European struggle between France, allied with Sweden, and Germany. Till 1678 the war proceeded, France losing the support of England in 1674, and the invaluable services of Turenne in 1675. After that year France began to show signs of exhaustion. Unfortunately for Europe, the Dutch, in spite of the resistance of their Stadtholder, William of Orange, evinced a marked anxiety for the conclusion of the war, and on August 10th, 1678, a treaty was signed between them and Louis. Four days later, the conclusion of peace not being known, William fought a battle near Mons in which many were killed on both sides.

With Spain a treaty was concluded on September 17th, and with the Emperor on February 2nd, 1679. These treaties form the celebrated Peace of Nimeguen. That peace, in reality, marks the first step in the decline of the power of Louis XIV.

After Nimeguen Louis regarded himself as the most powerful monarch in Europe and above all



Painted by]

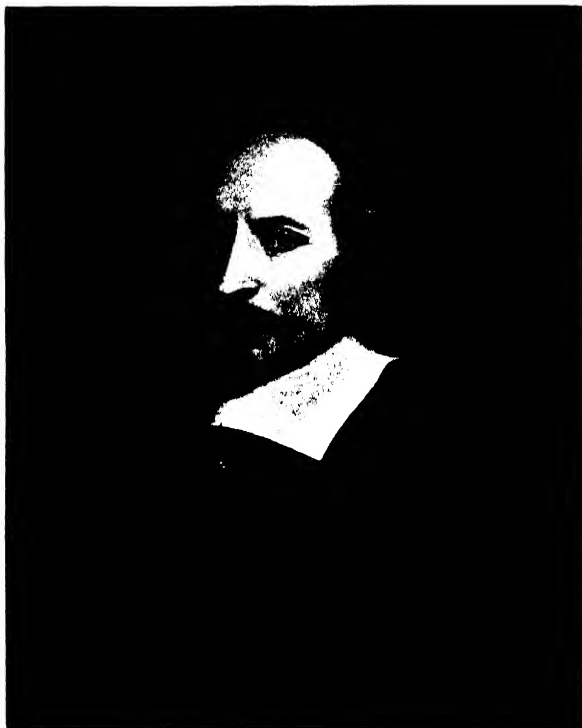
[Heim.

THE DUC D'ENGHIEN, AFTERWARDS PRINCE DE CONDÉ, AT THE BATTLE OF ROCROY, 1643.

In 1643 the young Duc d'Enghien was appointed in command against the Spanish in Northern France. Although opposed by experienced generals he gained at the age of twenty-two a signal victory at Rocroy, which destroyed the domination of the Spanish army. He was supported at this battle by some of the best French commanders, but the decisive attack was his own design.

criticism, and in all directions he embarked upon a policy of aggrandizement. In 1682 he embarked upon an eleven years' bitter conflict with the Papacy over the question of the independence of the Gallican Church. During the quarrel Bossuet and an assembly of clergy drew up the celebrated resolution, setting forth the exact limits of the power of the Pope.

In 1685, being apparently misled by his advisers, Louis consented to the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, by which France lost, it is said, fifty thousand of its most industrious families. Louis apparently aimed at national solidarity and uniformity of religion; but the results of his policy were to prove disastrous to himself and his country. In spite of his efforts, Huguenotism was never stamped out in France, and during the Spanish Succession War the peasants in the Cevennes kept fully occupied large numbers of French troops. But in 1685 and the years following Louis, misled by Madame de Maintenon and others, believed that the Huguenots had been forced into submission, and years passed before the serious results of his action were realized by him. In the meantime all was going well for France. After De Ruyter's death her fleet rode triumphant in the Mediterranean, and while Louvois had improved the army, Seignelay, the son of Colbert, had brought the navy into



Painted by]

[Pierre Mignard.

CARDINAL MAZARIN, 1602-1661.

Mazarin was Richelieu's successor as chief minister. In 1656 he negotiated a treaty with Cromwell directed against Spain, and later in isolation Spain was obliged to consider peace proposals. His negotiations for the marriage of Louis XIV. with the Spanish Infanta resulted in the cession to France of Artois and various towns.

of England. Had he thrown an army on the Flemish frontier, William's presence in Holland would have been necessary, and Louis could have pursued his campaign on the Rhine without fear of English intervention. As it was, the independent attitude of James led him to relinquish any intention of threatening Holland and to offer no obstacle to the expedition of William. He evidently thought that the latter's arrival in England would be the signal for the outbreak of a long civil war. England would thus be too much occupied, as she was during the Great Rebellion, to interfere in foreign politics. James would realize how necessary to him was the French alliance, and Louis would be free to carry out his designs on the Continent.

The autumn of the year 1688 saw the invasion of England by William of Orange and the opening

a condition rivalling that of England, which country, owing to the accession of James II. in 1685, seemed most unlikely to interfere actively against any of Louis' schemes. But opposition was growing in Europe, and Louis' aggressions since 1678 were bound to lead to some action on the part of the rapidly increasing number of his enemies. In 1686 the Emperor, the princes of North Germany, Spain, Sweden, and Holland formed the League of Augsburg to resist the aggressions of France, and at the same time the opposition of Brandenburg to Louis was most pronounced. In the following year the League was joined by Bavaria and various Italian princes.

In face of this coalition formed by the League of Augsburg, Louis prepared for action, and in the year 1688 took a decision of vast importance to the French monarchy. Since 1678 the withdrawal of England from foreign politics had been of the greatest service to him, and it was of the utmost importance that England should remain passive. The accession of James II. to the English throne in 1685 had rendered his confidence in England's neutrality more assured. But James adopted a somewhat independent tone when Louis intimated a desire for the assistance of the English fleet and army during his coming struggle in Germany.

Well aware of the designs of William of Orange, Louis, however, took no steps to prevent his invasion



Painted by]

[Franque.

THE BATTLE OF LENS.

At one point in the battle it appeared that Condé might be defeated by the Spaniards, for the rearguard of the French was thrown into confusion by a cavalry charge under General Beck. But after a stubborn fight Condé absolutely routed the Archduke Leopold's army, and 5,000 prisoners with artillery and baggage were captured.



Madame de Pompadour, by François Boucher (1703-1770), who was painter to Louis XV. As a portraitist he flattered his sitters and was popular. He produced more than 10,000 portraits and drawings, and is known for his figure, landscape and allegorical subjects.



The Rustic Lesson, by N. Lancret (1660-1743), whose pictures reflect the lighter side of French society under the Regency. He was an admirer of Watteau, but his work, though pleasing, lacks the genius of that great master. Although he painted other subjects his favourite ones were balls, fairs, village weddings, etc.



Princesse de Condé, by Nattier (1673-1743), who, like Boucher, was one of the court painters of the reign of Louis XV. His style was less hard and his drawing more natural than that of his great contemporary.



The Deluge, by N. Poussin (1594-1665). He was born in Normandy, studied in Paris, and was appointed painter in ordinary to Louis XIII. His work, which is greatly admired, shows classical and Renaissance influences, but the colours of his paintings unfortunately have much faded.



The Embarking of St. Ursula, by Claude Lorraine (1600-1682), properly named Claude Gellée. He was a native of Lorraine, but he learnt his art in Italy. So much was his work esteemed that Pope Clement IX. offered to purchase one of his pictures by covering the canvas with gold coins, an offer which Claude declined.



The Fair-haired Child, by Fragonard (1732-1806). He was much influenced by the Italian school. He delighted in warm tints and broad touches. His subjects show that he was a sentimental realist who painted *genre* pictures from actual observation.

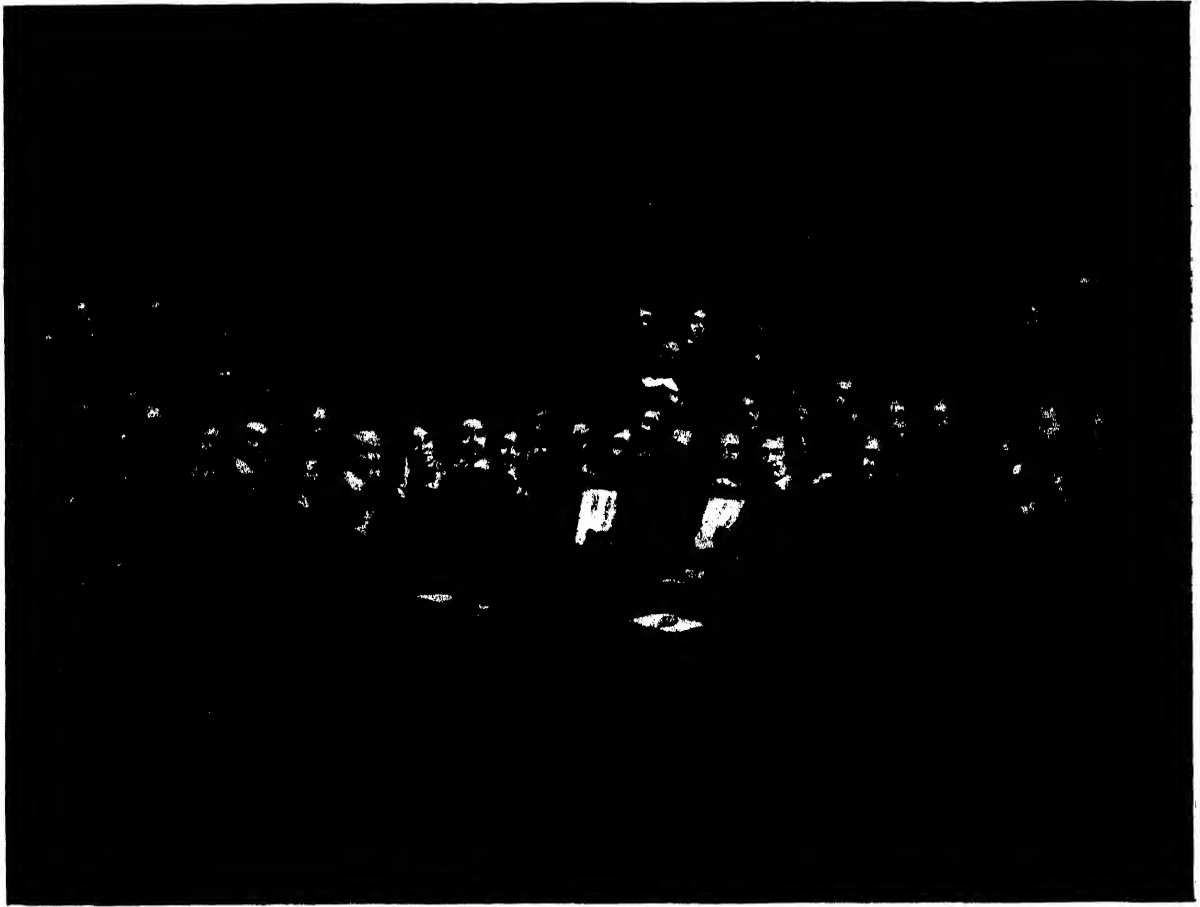


The Music Party, by Antoine Watteau (1684-1721), who was the creator of a new type of art. The mock pastoral idylls in Court dress of the Orleans Regency period, of this gifted painter, have always been highly valued. He was unusually successful with subjects representing conventional shepherds and shepherdesses, fêtes champêtres, rustic dances, etc.



Girl leaning on her hand, by J. B. Greuse (1825-1805), who died at the age of eighty. He is without question the most universally popular of all the French artists. The delicacy and charm of his work is deservedly admired, but there is little variety in his subjects.

REPRESENTATIVE SPECIMENS OF FRENCH PAINTING.



Painted by]

[G. Ter Borch.

THE PEACE OF MÜNSTER.

The position of France at the conferences, first opened in 1643, was rendered easier by the successes of Turenne and Condé. The questions considered were a new distribution of territory at the close of the Thirty Years' War, the civil and religious rights of the nations concerned, and a fresh constitution for the Empire. The Treaty of Westphalia was signed on the 24th of October, 1648.

of war between Louis and the Emperor. Meanwhile James II. had fled from England, where the Revolution had taken place, followed by the accession of William III. and Mary. The weight of England was at once thrown upon the side of the League of Augsburg, and the Second Hundred Years' War between France and Great Britain began.

THE FIRST STAGES OF THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1688 1715

THE first period in the Second Hundred Years' War includes the years from 1688 to the Peace of Utrecht in 1713. It is divided into two sections, separated by the Treaty of Ryswyk, which was merely a truce. During the period from 1688 to 1697 there were various issues at stake. For Louis the question in which he was chiefly interested was the maintenance of his supremacy in Europe. For France the war marked definitely the beginning of her decline, which beginning had been indicated at the time of the Treaty of Nimeguen. Since that treaty Louis had alienated practically the whole of Europe by his aggressions, and had seriously weakened France by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. From 1688 he was confronted by practically all Europe, though in the Spanish Succession War he received the support of Spain, Bavaria, and Köln. Nevertheless, in the War of the League of Augsburg he showed his usual energy and confidence. England was attacked in Ireland, on the sea, and in Flanders, and for a time William III. was prevented from throwing himself heart and soul into the Continental war. In Ireland, where James II. landed in 1689, the struggle continued till July 14th, 1690, when William III. obtained a decisive victory in the Battle of the Boyne, after which James escaped to France. The

failure of James II. resulted in Ireland ceasing to be a theatre of the great war, which now was confined to the Continent and the English Channel. On May 10th, 1692, all the hopes entertained by Louis of forcing England to make peace by a decisive victory at sea were overthrown by the defeat of his fleet in the Battle of La Hogue. Although schemes were prepared for a French invasion of England in 1696, they failed owing to Louis' caution, and the inability of James to bring about a demonstration in his favour in England. On land the war was confined mainly to the Flemish frontier and to Italy, where Catinat won Staffarda in August, 1690, and took from Victor Amadeus Savoy, Nice, and the greater part of Piedmont. The efforts of Victor Amadeus, aided by Prince Eugene, to retrieve these losses, failed, and in October, 1693, Catinat won the battle of Marsaglia, again overrunning Piedmont. In the Low Countries the Duke of Luxemburg, who, in 1691 and 1692, captured the fortresses of Mons and Namur, won in 1692 the battle of Steenkirke, and in 1693 the battles of Neerwinden and Landen; but after his death in 1695 William III. retook Namur.

Louis' position was, however, with regard to Germany, still somewhat menacing. He remained in occupation of Alsace, and Lorraine could be reoccupied at any moment. The Peace of Ryswyk was simply a truce, for Louis had by no means forgone his claims to the Spanish Succession, and the struggle with England for command of the sea and for supremacy in North America and in India had only begun.

The anxiety of Louis XIV. to secure peace on the Continent was due to the imminence of a political catastrophe which might involve Europe in endless difficulties. Ever since the accession of Charles, King of Spain, in 1665, the possibility of the question of the Spanish Succession being thrown down before Europe was generally realized. For Charles had bad health, and his death was constantly expected. Spain lay like a water-logged vessel, and the partition of her vast dominions seemed the necessary consequence of the death of her king without heirs. Consequently, Louis XIV., whose wife, the elder daughter of Philip IV., was a claimant to the Spanish empire, made in 1668 a secret arrangement with the Emperor Leopold, who had married a younger daughter of Philip IV., for a division of the Spanish inheritance on the death of Charles. By this arrangement France was to receive the Low Countries, Franche-Comté, Naples, and Sicily; and the emperor was to have Spain and Spanish America. Charles, however, contrary to expectation, lived till the end of the century, though it was quite evident in 1697 that his health was in a very precarious condition. Louis therefore sent an envoy to London, with a project for the partition of the Spanish empire, his chief object being "to



Painted by

COMMEMORATION OF THE PEACE OF MÜNSTER, 1648.

[Bartholomeus van der Helst.]

The scene depicted is that of a group of veterans of the Thirty Years' War. They are gathered together apparently for feasting, and in the foreground is their officer with the regimental colours, whilst his men sit round a table drinking wine.

prevent an Austrian succession," while "the great object of Heinsius and William was to prevent a French succession."

Eventually the First Partition Treaty was drawn up in 1698, but being made without consulting Spain, its king executed a will leaving all his dominions to the Electoral Prince of Bavaria, grandson of

the Emperor Leopold and his wife Margaret Theresa. In 1699, however, the death of the Electoral Prince caused the opening of fresh negotiations, which led to the Second Partition Treaty in March, 1700, arranged by William III. and Louis XIV., in accordance with which the Archduke Charles, the second son of the emperor, was to have Spain, the Spanish colonies, and the Netherlands, and France was to have Naples, Sicily, and Lorraine, whose prince was to receive Milan. For various reasons this treaty was generally most unpopular in Europe, and on the news of it Charles II. at once made a second will, leaving all his dominions to Philip, the second son of the Dauphin. On November 1st, 1700, Charles died, and on November 16th Louis, throwing over all his promises, accepted the will. Owing in great measure to the unpopularity of the Partition Treaties, Louis' decision caused little excitement, and England and Holland in 1701 recognized Philip as King of Spain. Philip was received with acclamation in Madrid, and it seemed that the boast attributed to Louis XIV.—*Il n'y a plus de Pyrénées*—was likely to prove correct. Had Louis remained tranquil and content with his success Europe would have enjoyed some years of peace. But apparently he was convinced that hostilities against France would shortly take place, and he determined to anticipate any action on



From the painting]

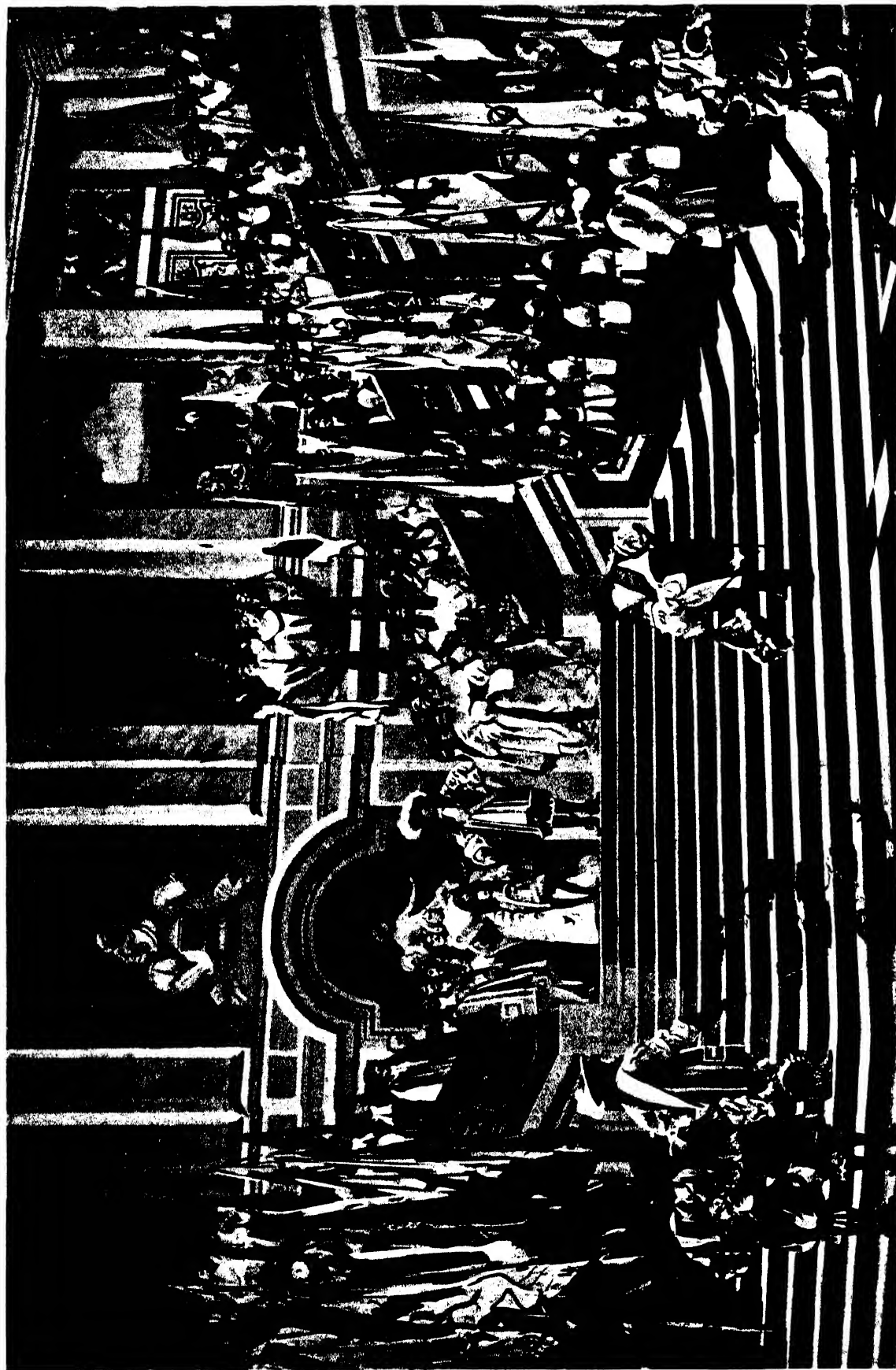
[By Jean Paul Laurens.

THE ARREST OF BROUSSEL AND THE LEADERS OF THE OPPOSITION IN THE PARLEMENT.

In 1648, during the regency of Anne of Austria (Louis XIV. being too young to hold the reins of power), the *Parlement* refused to sanction an oppressive war tax on articles of merchandise brought for sale in Paris. Broussel, an aged councillor, and two others were arrested, but the popular outcry rose to a condition of civil war, and Anne was obliged to give the order for the release of the prisoners.

the part of Holland and England. In any case Louis made the outbreak of war certain by expelling the Dutch garrisons from the "Barrier" fortresses early in 1701. So long as Louis held these fortresses Holland lay open to a French invasion.

Louis had already made an error in reserving Philip's rights to the French throne, for the possible union of the French and Spanish crowns was already arousing alarm in England. But confident in his strength and completely failing to understand the real feeling of the English and Dutch nations, Louis



Painted by

RECEPTION OF THE GRAND CONDÉ BY LOUIS XIV.

It was in 1674 that Louis XIV. received the famous general at the Palace of Versailles with every sign of kindly favour. A great assembly of Court celebrities was gathered together, and all strove to do him honour. Guards lined the staircase holding standards, Conde's trophies of war, whilst laurel wreaths were thrown down for his acceptance.

[Jerome,

acted as though he was dictator of Europe. William III., however, was fully alive to the meaning of the French king's policy, and on September 7th signed the Grand Alliance with the Emperor and the Dutch. By this famous alliance it was agreed to procure the restoration of the "Barrier," to secure the Milanese and other Italian possessions of Spain for the emperor, and to prevent the union of France and Spain. Even now there was no warlike feeling in England, and by a policy of moderation Louis might have preserved peace. But on the death of James II., which came shortly after the formation of the Grand Alliance (Sept. 14th), Louis recognized his son James Edward, the old Pretender, as heir to the English Crown.

Public opinion in England was at last aroused. William dissolved Parliament in November, and in the new Parliament a Whig majority eager for war was secured. Early in 1702 Anne succeeded William III. on the English throne, and war was declared by the Grand Alliance.

With war upon him and all Europe save Bavaria and Köln practically opposed to him, Louis showed conspicuous energy. From 1701 to 1709 he practically ruled Spain from Paris, directing by means of his ambassadors the policy and movements of the Spanish government. The accession of Philip V. had saved Spain from ruin; the appointment in 1705 of Amelot as French envoy at Madrid marked the definite beginning of the work of reform which resulted in the recovery of Spain and its replacement among the chief European monarchies. Meanwhile French armies had to be provided, not only for Spain, but also for the Rhine, for Italy, and for Flanders.

In Italy hostilities had actually begun before the declaration of war, and Prince Eugene, after some

early successes, such as the capture of Villeroy in February, 1702, had been held in check in August by Vendôme, and compelled to retire beyond the Adige. In May of the same year Marlborough, now Captain-General of the Dutch forces as well as commander of the English troops, took Bonn and drove the French from the electorate of Köln. Two Austrian armies were checked by Villars and Tallard and an advance on Vienna mooted. In 1704 the armies of Marsin and Tallard made another attempt to march on Vienna.



Painted by]

[David Teniers the Younger.

THE GREAT CONDÉ, 1621-1686.

Condé was renowned for keenness and swift decision in action, but he could also conduct his operations by safe and methodical means. He fought his last great battle against the Prince of Orange at Seneff in 1674, and thenceforth his life was spent in retirement at Chantilly.



Painted by]

[Adam Franz van der Meulen.

THE PASSAGE OF THE RHINE BY THE FRENCH ARMY.

The passage of the Rhine on the 12th of June, 1672, marked the beginning of Louis XIV.'s war on Holland. Condé was wounded and the Duc de Longueville killed. The French, however, sustained small loss, as the Dutch force was too small to seriously oppose them.



Painted by]

[Hugues de Rigault,

CARDINAL FLEURY, 1653-1743.

Fleury was made cardinal in 1726, and his administration was worked on frugal and prudent lines. In foreign affairs he cultivated a good understanding with England. He was compelled in 1733 to support the claims of Stanislaus Leszczynski to the Polish throne by declaring war on Austria.

In 1708, however, disasters again visited France, for at Oudenarde, Vendôme and Burgundy were, in July, totally defeated by Marlborough and Eugene, and after the capture of Lille from Boufflers the whole of Flanders submitted to Marlborough. The winter of 1708-9 was a terrible one in France, and in 1709 peace negotiations were opened at The Hague. As the Allies insisted on Louis' assistance in expelling Philip from Spain, the negotiations failed and the war continued.

During the year 1710 the prospects of the French improved. By their defeats at Brihuega on December 8th, and at Villa Viciosa on December 10th, the cause of the Allies was completely lost in Spain, while the fall of the Whigs and the accession of a Tory government to office in the same year increased the hopes of a reasonable peace. Early in 1711 peace negotiations were definitely opened. The accession of

But they were intercepted in the Danube valley by Marlborough and suffered a crushing defeat at Blenheim on August 13th. The results were disastrous for France. Bavaria was occupied by the Allies, and henceforward French generals, instead of taking an aggressive line of action, had to use all their efforts in warding off invasion. In 1702, in Vigo Bay, the English fleet had defeated a French squadron and destroyed a number of Spanish merchant ships, while on August 4th, 1704, Gibraltar was captured by an English force. From 1704 to 1709 France, in spite of some successes, chiefly in Spain, suffered many disasters. In 1706 Italy was entirely lost to France by her defeat in the battle of Turin, and the Convention of Milan secured the withdrawal of all French troops from Italian soil. Earlier in the year, in May, Marlborough defeated Villeroy at Ramillies, and swept the French out of Flanders, while in Spain the Allies entered Madrid and proclaimed the Archduke Charles king. In view of his disasters Louis had made overtures for peace, but they were rejected, and the war continued. The year 1707 proved more fortunate for France, for the Allies were driven out of Madrid and defeated in the battle of Almanza, while in Germany Villars won a victory over the Imperialists at Stollhofen.



Painted by]

[Jean Alaux,

THE CAPTURE OF VALENCIENNES BY LOUIS XIV.

The investment of Valenciennes was conducted in person by Louis, who had with him the Duke of Luxemburg and Vauban, the famous military engineer. To their surprise the city was captured at the first assault on the 17th of May, 1677, after a siege lasting eight days.



From a painting by G. Signorini.]

A MATINÉE.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

The scene depicted is that of a reception in the early part of the eighteenth century, and it is reminiscent of the exquisite taste and refinement which pervaded French society and gave France such a wonderful influence throughout Europe. Ladies and gentlemen are listening to a lady who is playing the spinet. The arts as applied to the decoration of the salon, and not less to the costumes of men and women, reached a height of elegance and beauty never known before.

the Archduke Charles, in April, to the Imperial throne rendered it impossible to uphold his claim to the throne of Spain; and though the Austrians and Dutch desired to continue the war, the English government, under Harley and Bolingbroke, continued their negotiations for peace, with the result that in 1713 the Treaty of Utrecht was signed. The Emperor, however, continued to carry on the war. But the victory of Villars over his forces at Denain in 1712, followed in 1713 by that general's invasion of Alsace and attack on Eugene's camp at Freiburg, forced him to agree to the Treaty of Rastadt, which was accepted by the Empire at Baden.

By these treaties Europe was revolutionized and a new era in its history begun. On the condition, which he accepted, that the crowns of France and Spain were never to be united, Philip V. was recognized as King of Spain, though Naples, the Milanese, the Netherlands, and Sardinia were given to the Emperor, and Sicily and part of the Milanese were bestowed on the Duke of Savoy. While the Netherlands were given to the Emperor, it was stipulated that the Dutch were to have the right of garrisoning



From a painting

[By Claude Goussier.]

REPARATION TO LOUIS XIV. BY THE DOGE OF GENOA.

France had in the past claimed the lordship of Genoa, but the republic had proved too independent to submit to be governed from outside. In 1684, however, the city was bombarded from the sea, and in the following year the Doge Francesco Maria Imperiali appeared before Louis to make reparation.

the "Barrier" as a defence against France. With regard to Germany, the kingdom of Prussia, to which was added Upper Gelderland, was recognized, and the electors of Köln and Bavaria were restored, while the succession of the House of Hanover was accepted. The chief interest, however, attaches to the clauses which affected France and England. The latter power received Minorca and Gibraltar, and—what was a matter of serious import to France—she also received Newfoundland, Hudson's Bay, Acadia, and St. Kitts, though to France were reserved certain fishing rights on the Banks of Newfoundland. France, too, was allowed to retain possession of Alsace with Strassburg, though she was called upon to demolish the fortifications of Dunkirk. Shortly afterwards the Emperor and Empire made the Treaties of Rastadt and Baden with France. The Peace of Utrecht marked the definite beginning of a struggle of England with Spain and France for maritime supremacy and colonial expansion. By the treaty Spain had granted to England the *Asiento*, or right to trade under certain conditions with the Spanish colonies in South America, while the establishment of England in Canada proved the real beginning of that rivalry which was fought out in the Seven Years' War.

INTERLUDE IN THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1715-1740

No sooner was the death of Louis XIV. known than a crowd of courtiers hastened to the Palais Royal and congratulated the Duke of Orleans on becoming Regent. Orleans was at that time forty-two years old. During the previous eighteen years he had seen service in the Netherlands, on the Rhine, and in Spain, and had been several times wounded.

During the Spanish Succession War he had fallen under the disfavour of Philip V. and of Louis XIV., and being unable to continue his warlike occupations, had devoted himself to art and chemistry, and



Painted by]

[Jean Alaux.

THE BATTLE OF DENAIN.

On the 24th of July, 1712, Marshal Villars attacked the British and Dutch under Albemarle in their entrenchments at Denain. The position was captured and most of the force taken prisoners. Villars then turned rapidly against Eugene, who was driven back towards Brussels. By his great achievement he saved the honour of France at a critical time.

to some extent to a life of debauchery. During these years, when he was in disgrace at the Court, he found a faithful and useful friend in Saint-Simon, to whose efforts his unopposed possession of the Regency was in great measure due. Saint-Simon, like the famous Abbé Siéyès, had very interesting theories with regard to the best form of government; it was to his efforts that Orleans was enabled to assume the rôle of Regent on Louis XIV.'s death, and, as a result, that his theories could be put into practice. The Regent, who presided over the Council of Regency, had no objection to experiments, and in September, 1715, a new and novel government was established, under which six councils, for the marine, the finances, commerce, foreign affairs, war, and home affairs, were formed. At the same time, the *Parlement* of Paris, which had lain dormant during the greater part of Louis XIV.'s reign,



Painted specially for this work

CARDINAL RICHELIEU'S ARRIVAL AT LYONS

by J. H. Valda

The last conspiracy against Richelieu was that of Cinq-Mars and De Thou. In order to attend the trial at Lyons, Richelieu embarked in his barge to make the journey by way of the Rhone, and De Thou was placed in a barge towed by that of the Cardinal. At Valence, however, the journey proved too fatiguing for Richelieu, and he was landed to complete it in a large canopied litter carried on the shoulders of his men. Notwithstanding his illness his mind never lost its activity, and in his strange carriage a chair and table were actually placed for his secretary.

revived many of its pretensions, and proved a serious obstacle to the success of the Regent's tentative but well-meant efforts to establish a system of government more liberal and more progressive than that of the late king.

The *Parlement* vigorously opposed the financial system introduced by Law; it entered upon a struggle with the Council of Regency, and it stirred up the provincial *parlements* to hamper the government. The Regent, however, who had entered in the autumn of 1716 upon an alliance with England, which, when it included Holland on January 4th, 1717, became known as the Triple Alliance, showed no little resolution, and on August 28th, 1718, at his instigation, the Council of Regency struck out boldly. The measures adopted by the *Parlement* of Paris were declared null and void, and the *Parlement* was placed in the position of subjection to which it had been reduced by Louis XIV. in 1667. Moreover, the Duke of Maine, who was well known as an opponent of the Regent, was removed from his position of guardian of the education of the young king, and was replaced by the Duke of Bourbon.

One of the chief difficulties which the Regent had had to face was connected with finance. Louis XIV. had left to the country an enormous debt, and the State found itself unable to raise further loans. Saint-Simon suggested that a national bankruptcy should be declared. The Council of Finance, however, rejected this proposal, and considered what other means were possible to restore the national credit. In October, 1715, Orleans consulted with no result the leading bankers and merchants. At this juncture Law, the son of an Edinburgh banker, who had been brought to the notice of the Regent, suggested the establishment of a royal bank with an unlimited paper currency. He now offered to set up at his own risk a private bank, and in May, 1716, he received authority to establish for twenty years a bank with a capital of six millions. The success of his project was startling, and encouraged him to extend his operations. In August, 1717, he introduced the Company of the West, which was to enjoy the monopoly of trade with North America for twenty years.



Painted by Gaston Mélingue.

MADemoISELLE DE MONTPENSIER AT THE BASTILLE.

[By permission of Braun et Cie.]

In the revolt known as the *Fronde* Mademoiselle de Montpensier saved Condé's beaten army at Paris by giving orders for it to be admitted at the gates of the Faubourg Saint-Antoine, whilst she directed the artillery from the Bastille on to the Royalists. *Frondeurs* were so described from comparison with the gamins of Paris, who fought in the streets with slings (*fronde*) and stones.

Want of funds in view of a possible war with Spain now led the Regent to hand over to Law the administration of the finances, and on December 4th, 1718, Law's Bank became the Royal Bank. Thus far Law's projects had succeeded. In May, 1719, he formed a company with the name *Compagnie perpétuelle des Indes*, and in July he obtained the right to coin money. From this time till early in 1720 all seemed to go well. But in May, 1720, the inevitable crash came, and in July Paris was in the hands of a large and excitable mob. The *Parlement* at once became prominent. It proposed to seize the person of the young king and to declare his minority at an end. The Regent, however, showed decision. On July 21st the *Parlement* was exiled to Pontoise; on December 14th Law departed for Brussels, and the brothers Paris were entrusted with the reorganization of the finances.

The reaction which accompanied the rise of Orleans to power had come to an end. The Regency had opened the flood-gates of criticism, and in spite of the temporary triumph of reactionary influences, the new ideas, economic, religious, and scientific, which had appeared in France in the years immediately



From the painting]

LOUIS XIV. AND MOLIÈRE.

[By Jerome.

Molière was the stage name of Jean Baptiste Poquelin, the greatest French writer of comedies (1622-1673). He inherited from his father the office *valet tapissier* to the king, his duties being the arrangement of the furniture of the royal apartments when the king travelled. In spite of the most venomous accusations brought against the actor, Louis XIV. remained his firm friend, and besides giving him a pension became godfather to his child. Molière's character has been cleared by modern authorities.

following Louis XIV.'s death were bound to reassert themselves during the century, till they culminated in the outbreak of the French Revolution.

On the accession of Orleans to the office of Regent, Europe was passing through an anxious period. The Spanish Succession War had indeed ended with the Treaties of Utrecht, but in the north of Europe a state of war still existed, in which the interests of Russia, Sweden, Denmark, Prussia, Poland, Hanover, and indeed Turkey, were more or less concerned. The Jacobites never ceased their intrigues against George I., while the Emperor Charles VI. was by no means satisfied with the possession of Naples. What was more serious, the antagonism between Philip V. of Spain and Orleans threatened to involve Europe in a fresh war of enormous dimensions. In spite of the fact that the perpetual separation of the Crowns of France and Spain had been acknowledged by all the great powers at the Utrecht settlement, Philip V. continued to hope that the future would see him King of France. When he heard that Orleans was Regent his disappointment was somewhat modified by the knowledge that almost the whole of the French *noblesse* were ready to support a Spanish army, should it enter France to vindicate the claim



From the painting by De Parnetta.

MOZART RECEIVED BY THE MARQUISE DE POMPADOUR.

During the last year of her life—she died at forty-two years—the Marquise de Pompadour, who had been favourite of Louis XV. since 1744, received the German composer, Mozart, who was then only seven years of age. The amazingly gifted little boy was taken from Court to Court by his father. Everywhere the child's charming appearance and disposition captivated his audiences. At Versailles he played on the organ as well as the harpsichord, and it was during his sojourn in Paris that his first compositions were published.

[Painted by R. Fournier, 1744.]

of the Spanish king to the Regency. It was evident that in Philip of Spain Orleans had an enemy who would lose no opportunity of displacing him from his position as Regent. The danger from Spain was, however, somewhat modified by the fact that Elizabeth Farnese, the ambitious Spanish Queen, aimed primarily at securing the duchies of Parma and Piacenza for her son Don Carlos, who was born in January, 1716, while the Spanish minister was for the moment chiefly concerned in freeing Italy from the Austrians. In Alberoni, one of the ablest of the foreign adventurers who were so prominent in Spanish history during the eighteenth century, Orleans was likely to find an enemy who eventually



From the painting]

[By Horace Vernet.

LOUISE DE LA VALLIÈRE PRESENTED TO LOUIS XIV. AT ST. GERMAIN.

Of all Louis XIV.'s favourites none was more in love with him or as constant in her devotion than Louise de la Vallière. When they first met he was twenty-three and she a girl of barely seventeen. Louise is described as tall and of the lissom slenderness of a young tree. Her complexion was very fair, her blue eyes soft and full of expression; hair of a silvery fairness framed her beautiful face, while the sound of her voice, extraordinarily sweet, lingered for ever in the ear of those who heard it.

might prove an able supporter of Philip's designs. For Alberoni had foresight, determination, and what was most needed, patience.

On December 15th, 1715, a commercial treaty was, at Alberoni's instigation, concluded between Spain and England. But no close alliance was possible at that time between the two countries, especially as the chief consideration of the English government was to maintain the Hanoverian succession. At the same time, the danger from Spanish intrigues forced the Regent, whose chief adviser was the Abbé Dubois, to strengthen himself by an alliance with his powerful northern neighbour. On October 9th, 1716, Dubois' negotiations at The Hague with George I. resulted in a convention between France and England, which when joined by Holland on January 4th, 1717, became famous as the Triple Alliance. This treaty assured to George the Crown of England, and to Orleans the French Regency.

The advantages to France from this treaty with England proved immense. The Spanish king was compelled to recognize the futility of attempting to oust the Regent, and the natural tendency of Spain



From a painting of the French School.

[By permission of Levy Frères, Paris.]

THE REGENCY COUNCIL OF LOUIS XV.

The Council, which included the Dukes of Bourbon, Maine and Saint-Simon, was chiefly concerned with an inquiry into the methods employed for convicting prisoners sent to the Bastille, the reduction of the army, and a new coinage. A special court was instituted for verifying claims against the Government.

be given him to complete his warlike preparations, the King and Queen of Spain insisted on action being at once taken, and on August 22nd, 1717, Spanish troops landed in Sardinia, which then was an Austrian possession. Within two months the conquest of the island was completely effected. Charles VI. had no fleet, and consequently was compelled to appeal to England and France for assistance. Philip of Orleans showed a natural hesitation to comply with the wishes of the Emperor. To help the Austrians against Philip, who was by birth a French prince, would be an act distasteful to the French nation, and, moreover, the supremacy of the Austrians in Italy was not regarded with favour in France. While these negotiations were proceeding—negotiations which eventuated in the Quadruple Alliance in August, 1718—the Spaniards had not been idle, and on June 1st, 1718, a force landed in Sicily, which belonged to the House of Savoy. Three days later Philip V. was proclaimed King of Sicily. Important events followed in rapid succession. The Peace of Passarowitz, on July 21st, enabled Charles VI. to pour troops into Naples. On August 2nd the adhesion of Austria to the Triple Alliance transformed it into the Quadruple Alliance, the French government having with difficulty been persuaded to join in bringing pressure to bear on Spain. On August 11th, the victory of Admiral Byng over the Spanish fleet in the battle of Passaro was followed by a declaration of war against Spain by England and France.

The natural objection of the French government to enter into hostilities against Spain was removed by the rash conduct of the Spanish government. Cellamare, the Spanish Ambassador in Paris, had entered into a conspiracy against Orleans. In December, 1718, Dubois attacked the conspirators, whose papers were seized. On December 13th, Cellamare himself was arrested and deported to Spain, while the Duke and Duchess of Maine, with their

and France to ally together was seen before many years were over. From 1717 to 1720, however, the governments of the two countries were in a condition of veiled or open hostility to each other. During these years both England and France appreciated and benefited from their alliance.

The danger to the peace of Europe from the strained relations between Spain and Austria showed itself in 1717. Molinés, the Spanish Ambassador to the Pope and the Inquisitor-General, had been arrested in the Milanese by the Austrian authorities and imprisoned in Milan, where he died. In spite of the advice of Alberoni that time should



From the painting by Van Loo, at Versailles. By permission of Levy Frères, Paris.

LOUIS XV., 1710-1774.

Louis XV. aimed at being an autocratic ruler, but although ambitious, he was too weak in will to uphold his purpose. His life is a record of vice unrelieved by any higher aims whatever. He was seized by smallpox in 1774 and died unwept by the nation.

accomplices, were imprisoned. The government gained immense popularity for a short time, and its declaration of hostilities against Spain was followed by an invasion of that country in the spring of 1719, while at the same time only two Spanish ships and two hundred men were able to land in Scotland in order to embarrass the English government. Alberoni's plans had failed, and on December 5th, 1719, he was expelled from Spain, while on January 26th, 1720, Philip V. declared his adhesion to the Quadruple Alliance. The way was thus cleared for a return to the close relations which had subsisted between France and Spain during the later years of the reign of Louis XIV.

Saint-Simon, always hostile to the Anglo-French Alliance of 1717, reproached the Regent for being "sorcercized" by the English charms. However, as the French government persisted in adhering, not only to its alliance with England, but also to its ancient friendship with Sweden, Poland, and Turkey, it was impossible to contract a close alliance with Russia. It, however, concluded with



Painted by]

[G. Ullivier.

A TEA PARTY AT THE PRINCESS OF CONDÉ'S HOUSE.

The picture furnishes one more illustration of the social life of France in the eighteenth century. An afternoon tea party is in progress, and on the left by the window musicians are to be seen entertaining the company with spinet and guitar. As an interior painting the picture is full of delicate work and pleasing in its fidelity to outline.

Russia and Prussia the Treaty of Amsterdam on August 15th, 1717, which guaranteed the Treaty of Utrecht, and the *éventuelle* peace of the North of Europe, and which included a treaty of commerce favourable to France. The importance of this treaty lies in the fact that it was the first definite treaty signed between France and Russia, and that for many years friendly relations between the two countries as a rule existed. Moreover, it contributed to bring about peace in the north, which was signalized by the Treaty of Nystäd. Till that treaty, however, was signed, Europe passed through an anxious period. In October, 1715, George I., as Elector of Hanover, declared war upon Charles XII. of Sweden, and from that moment the Jacobites expected, and with some reason, that an expedition to Scotland would be arranged.

Peter the Great had also causes of complaint against Prussia, Denmark, and Poland; it was therefore natural that he and Charles XII. should find a basis of agreement. They were both resolved to overthrow George I. and to place James III. on the English throne. In January, 1718, a congress was held in one of the Aland Islands, and an understanding was come to. It seemed in the summer of 1718 that



Painted by Le Boucquet.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

A VISIT OF LOUIS XV. TO HIS DAUGHTER.

Madame Louise, one of the daughters of Louis XV., who gave her the nickname of "Chiffe," meaning "bad stuff," retired to the Carmelite Convent of St. Denis. She devoted much of her time and energy to the intrigues of the clergy, and frequently asked her royal parent for appointments for priests who aimed at high office. Another daughter of Louis XV. was the beautiful and virtuous Madame Elizabeth, who was imprisoned in the Temple during the Revolution, and was sent to the guillotine on May 3rd, 1794.

Russia and Sweden had become the arbiters of the North of Europe. During these years the power of Russia had been manifested in no unmistakable fashion, and the influence of France had contributed powerfully to bring the Northern war to a conclusion. Both countries were drawn together, and the close connection between them is manifested in various ways. In May, 1721, the Russian ambassador in Paris had suggested a marriage between Peter's daughter Elizabeth and Louis XV., and on the announcement of Louis' engagement to the Spanish Infanta Peter proposed that Elizabeth should marry the Duke of Chartres, son of the Regent, or the Count de Charolais, son of the Duke of Bourbon. These proposals having for various reasons fallen through, the Tsar, on accession of the Duc de Bourbon to power after Orleans' death, again returned to his project of the marriage of Elizabeth to Louis XV. The chief difficulty seemed to lie in the insistence of the French government that England should be included in any fresh alliance. The Tsar had, after much hesitation, consented to the demand made by Camprédon, the French minister at Stockholm, when he died on January 28th, 1725.

His death took place at a momentous epoch in French, and indeed in European, history, when it seemed that the two branches of the House of Bourbon would again find themselves in conflict. On March 27th, 1721, the Secret Treaty of Madrid had united France and Spain in an offensive and defensive alliance. The remonstrances of the English Cabinet, which had wind of this treaty, led to a fresh treaty on June 13th, which included England. Following this treaty came the famous marriage arrangements between the French and Spanish royal houses, which were not regarded with favour by Charles VI., who realized that the isolation of Austria in Europe seemed imminent. On December 19th, 1722, he launched upon the world the Ostend Company, having already established companies at Fiume and Trieste. The excitement in London and at The Hague was great, and the Duke of Orleans seemed not unwilling to join in the opposition to Austria. A possible war with Austria was, however, for the moment averted by the deaths of Dubois in August and of Orleans in December, 1723. At that time the Congress of Cambray, which France and England had decided should meet, was pursuing its ineffectual career, which was soon to be affected by the policy of the Duc de Bourbon,



From the painting]

[By Gudin, at Versailles.

THE FRENCH NAVAL SUCCESS AT BREST IN 1694.

A British expedition against Brest under Admiral Berkeley and General Tollemache proved a failure owing to the treachery of Lord Marlborough, who allowed the aim of the fleet to reach Louis XIV. through James. In the attempted landing one thousand English, including General Tollemache, were lost, two ships of the line and several transports being destroyed.

the successor of Orleans. Though Bourbon was careful to preserve the English alliance, he had no hesitation for purely personal reasons in provoking a quarrel with Spain, and on September 4th, 1725, Louis XV. married Marie Leszczyński, the daughter of Stanislaus, the ex-king of Poland.

Spain was not slow at resenting the insulting conduct of the Duc de Bourbon, and Philip V. at once threw himself into the arms of the Hapsburgs. Through the instrumentality of Ripperdá, the Spanish envoy at Vienna, treaties were signed in April and May, 1725, establishing a close alliance between Spain and Austria, the latter power engaging to aid Spain to recover Gibraltar, while Spain promised its support of the Ostend Company. On August 5th the Spanish envoys were withdrawn from Paris, and with the Infanta returned to Spain. In reply to the Austro-Spanish alliance, France, England, and Prussia signed the Treaty of Hanover on September 23rd, and Holland joined these powers in the follow-

ing year, when Austria obtained the support of Russia. Thus Europe was divided into two leagues, and a general European war seemed inevitable. Since 1717 Russia had entertained most friendly feelings towards France, and now the Polish marriage, which the Tsarina Catherine regarded as being most contrary to Russian interests, had been entered into. It was, therefore, not surprising that Catherine sent an envoy to Vienna, who concluded a treaty with Austria on August 6th, 1726, Russia undertaking to aid the Emperor with thirty thousand men against his enemies. Till the outbreak of the French Revolution the Russo-Austrian friendship had important and unlooked-for results, and deeply affected the course of European history.

At this crisis Fleury succeeded the incapable Duc de Bourbon (June 26th, 1726), but for a time the outlook remained threatening. In 1727, Sweden, Denmark, and Bavaria joined the Anglo-French alliance, which, however, in the same year was deserted by Prussia. The efforts of Fleury to preserve the peace of Europe never ceased, and various events came to his aid. The Spaniards, in February,



Photo by Benecur Gtula.

[By permission of B.P.C., London.]

LOUIS XV. AND MADAME DUBARRY.

Marie Jeanne Bécu was the third and last of Louis XV.'s favourites. Born in 1746 at Vaucouleurs, she was of great personal charm. Her influence over Louis was absolute, and courtiers were favoured or disgraced at her bidding. She was condemned by the Revolutionary Tribunal for making use of State treasures and for wearing mourning for the late king, and was beheaded on the 6th of December, 1793.

1727, failed in their attempts to recover Gibraltar; the mission of Richelieu to Vienna was successful in checking any action on the part of the Emperor, while the death of Catherine of Russia, in May, 1727, destroyed for the time any hope of Russian reinforcements. Under the mediation of France, preliminaries were drawn up at Paris on May 31st between Austria and the maritime powers, and it was arranged that Charles VI. should suspend for seven years the operations of the Ostend East India Company, and that he should oppose any further attack by Spain on Gibraltar.

A somewhat complicated diplomatic period now followed, but the situation was saved by Walpole, who undertook to recognize the Pragmatic Sanction, which assured to Maria Theresa the Austrian possessions on the death of her father the Emperor—on the understanding that no impediment should



From the painting]

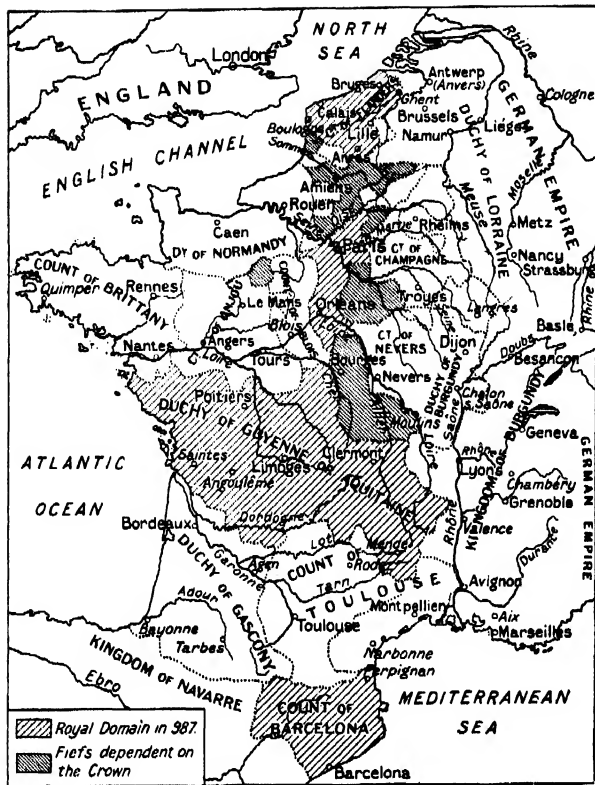
LOUIS XVI. DISTRIBUTING GIFTS TO THE POOR.

[By Hersent, at Versailles.]

Though lacking in will-power and without the needful understanding for his high calling, Louis XVI. was kindly in his acts to the poor, as the picture shows. But social evils had progressed too far, and his opposition to the Revolution sealed his fate and that of the monarchy.

be placed in the way of the embarkation of the Spanish troops to Italy. Spain, Holland, and the Grand Duke of Tuscany agreed to respect the Pragmatic Sanction by the Second Treaty of Vienna, and in November, 1731, an English fleet escorted six thousand Spanish troops to Italy. These troops occupied Leghorn, Parma, Piacenza, and Porto-Ferraio, in the name of Don Carlos, as Duke of Parma and heir-presumptive of the Grand Duke of Tuscany. Till 1733 Europe enjoyed a short period undisturbed by wars or rumours of war—a state of things which reflected great credit on the pacific policy and diplomatic skill of Fleury, who was aided in the critical year, 1731, by the skilful intervention of Walpole.

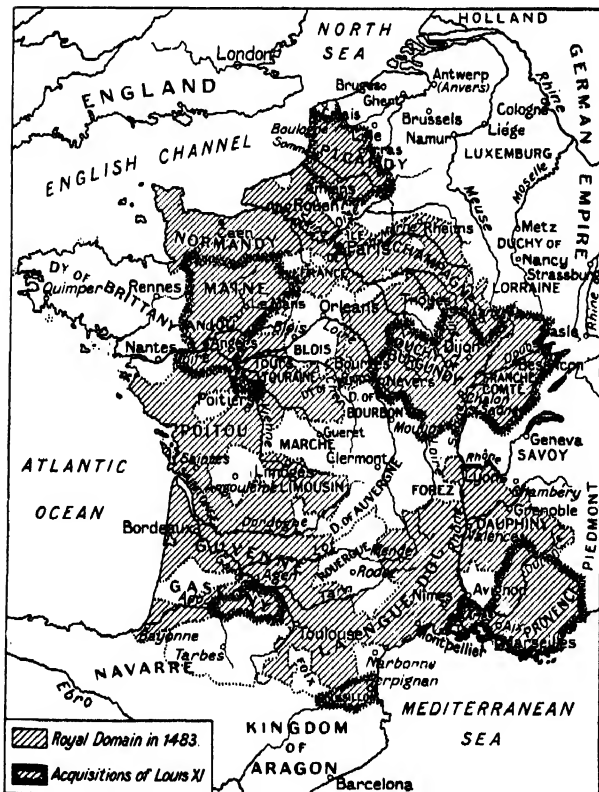
That brief period of European peace was, however, cut short by the death of Augustus II., Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, on February 1st, 1733. His son, Augustus III., the new Elector of Saxony, at once placed an army of thirty-three thousand men in the field, and exerted himself to get



FEUDAL FRANCE IN 987.



FRANCE AFTER THE TREATY OF BREIGNY, 1360.



FRANCE AT THE DEATH OF LOUIS XI., 1483



WESTERN EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.



From a painting]

[By Mme. Vigée-Lebrun.

MARIE ANTOINETTE AND HER CHILDREN.

Marie Antoinette, who was the daughter of Francis I. of Austria, proved herself to be wise and devoted as a mother, and there were four children of the marriage. The birth of the Dauphin Louis on October 22nd, 1781, was received with rejoicing, and Marie Antoinette's position was much strengthened by it. She had, however, many enemies owing to her reactionary influence over Louis.

one in which Austria was attacked by France and Spain, which powers had signed the First Family Compact (the Treaty of Madrid, October 25th, 1733). France had already made with Sardinia the Treaty of Turin on September 26th. By the Second Treaty of Vienna in 1735 France and Spain emerged triumphant from the war. While Elizabeth Farnese saw her son Don Carlos established as King of the Two Sicilies, France obtained practical possession of Lorraine, and the Holy Roman Empire sustained a severe loss. The First Family Compact had resulted in adequate gains to both of the chief Bourbon powers, and Fleury, during the next few years, increased the prestige of France by his renewal of the close connection of his country with Sweden, and by the diplomatic skill which he and his agents showed in bringing to a close the war between Russia and Turkey in 1739. No wonder if at the time of the death of the Emperor Charles VI. in 1740 leading Frenchmen imagined that France would prove a decisive factor in rearranging Europe on an entirely new basis.

THE CLIMAX IN THE SECOND HUNDRED YEARS' WAR, 1740-1763

THE year 1740 found France occupying a leading position in Europe, somewhat similar to that which she held after the Crimean War. The connection with Sweden and Turkey had been strengthened, and Augustus III., the king of Poland, seemed anxious to secure her friendship. Thus the ties which had

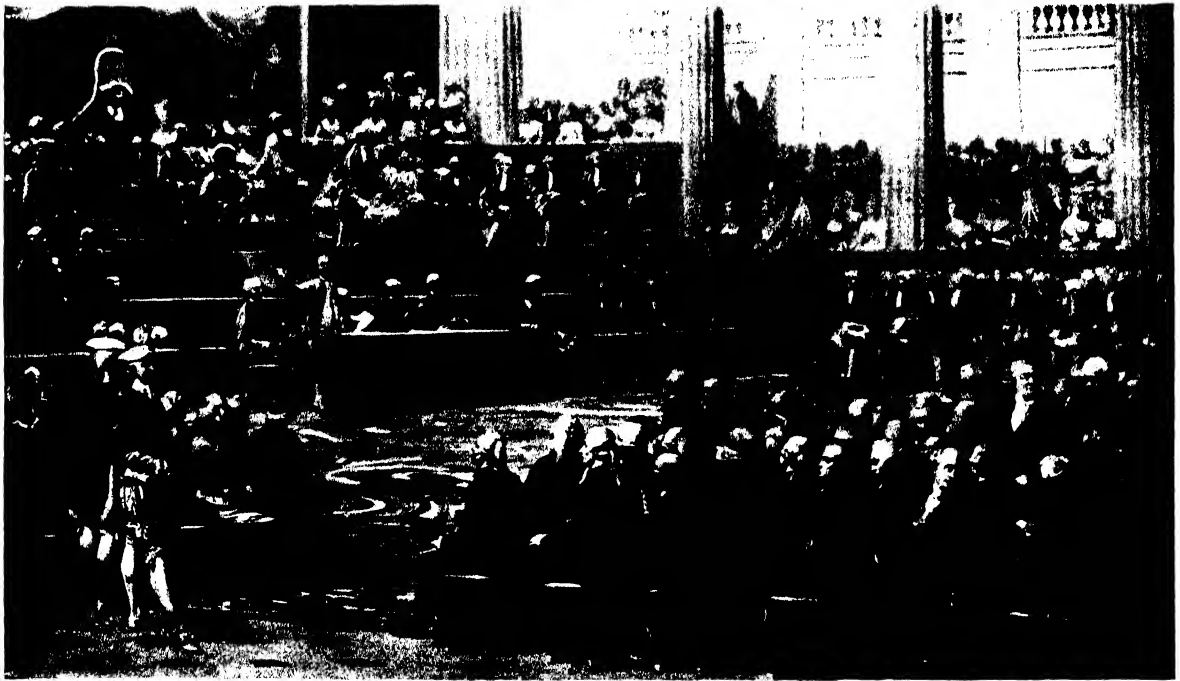
support for his candidature for the Polish throne. Opposed to him was the ex-king of Poland, Stanislaus Leszczynski, whose claim was supported by France. It was considered necessary, says d'Argenson, that the Queen of France should be the daughter of a king. Opposed by France, Augustus found an ally in Austria, whose monarch was won over by the promise of Augustus to sign the Pragmatic Sanction. On August 19th, 1733, Austria and Russia agreed by the convention of Warsaw to support Augustus by force of arms, and on September 24th he was proclaimed king by the Polish Dissidents, who were strengthened by Russian troops. But already, on September 12th, Stanislaus had been proclaimed king by the Polish nation at Warsaw amid scenes of excitement, and the French nation imagined that they had now "conquered Poland." "The Poles will nominate me," said Stanislaus, "but they will not support me." In fact, the election over, the Polish nobles dispersed, and Stanislaus was left with eight thousand men to hold his own against the Russian army. He had no chance of keeping his position in Poland, and the efforts of France to stir up Sweden and Turkey against Russia proved futile. Stanislaus fled to Danzig, which early in 1734 was besieged by a Russian force. An attempt of a French squadron to save the town failed, and on July 9th, 1734, it capitulated.

By this time the war had developed into

bound France to Sweden, Turkey, and Poland in past centuries seemed likely to be renewed, and her influence due to her central position in Europe strengthened. Even in Russia a powerful French party existed, and during the ensuing twenty years the connection between the French and Russian Courts was destined to have a profound influence in Europe. Moreover, Fleury showed a desire to establish friendly relations with Austria, and endeavoured to anticipate the alliance which was concluded in 1756 at the opening of the Seven Years' War. A general European peace would obviously have been most advantageous to France. Peace on the Continent would have enabled France to devote all her energies to strengthening her position in Canada, in India, in the West Indies, and on the sea, in preparation for the inevitable duel with Great Britain.

Already, in 1739, war had broken out between England and Spain, caused by trade disputes, and to Spain France was bound by the First Family Compact of 1733. Before, however, Fleury could decide to join Spain, or to stand aloof, two events occurred which had a profound and disastrous influence on the future history of France. The first of these was the death of the Emperor Charles VI. on October 20th; the second was the death of Anna of Russia on October 28th. Freed from all fear of Russian intervention in Germany for the time being, Frederick the Great took advantage of the weak position of Austria, now under Maria Theresa, and on December 16th invaded Silesia.

A European crisis had now arisen, and its magnitude depended upon the policy of France. If France took no action against Austria and observed the Pragmatic Sanction the war would be narrowed down to a struggle between Austria and Prussia. In England sympathy was expressed for Maria Theresa, but the government confined itself to diplomatic representations, and offered its mediation. In France a similar attitude, owing to the influence of Fleury, who was old and loved peace, was at first observed. But the war party in France was too strong for him, and in 1741 he was forced into war. Since the fifteenth century the Hapsburgs had supplied Europe with emperors. In 1740 the death of Charles VI. left no male Hapsburg to fill the imperial throne. Further, a woman, Maria Theresa, now ruled over the Hapsburg dominions. Since 1519 the rivalry between France and Austria had been unceasing; now was the opportunity to destroy the Hapsburg power and to render its further rivalry with France



Painted by]

[Charles Conder.

REUNION OF THE STATES-GENERAL AT VERSAILLES, 1789.

At the opening of the States-General at Versailles on the 5th of May, they were informed by Barentin that they might decide for themselves whether to vote according to their convictions or by orders, and Necker, Director of the Finances, went no further than to inform them as to the condition of the Treasury, to which he added a proposal for some small reforms.

impossible. With regard to the election to the Empire the war party in France advocated the claims of the Elector of Bavaria, the chief French ally in Germany.

The success of Frederick at Mollwitz enabled the war party in France to triumph over the hesitations of Fleury, who abandoned his adhesion to the Pragmatic Sanction. Belleisle, now a marshal, was sent to Germany to negotiate for the election of France was agreed to by Frederick the Great, who was desirous of securing permanent possession of Silesia. Till 1748 hostilities continued with little intermission in Germany, in Italy, and in the Low Countries. The year 1741 saw the Bavarian army, supported by a powerful French contingent, march to Prague, which was occupied on November 25th, while on January 24th, 1742, Charles of Bavaria was elected Emperor Charles VII. by the Diet at Frankfurt.

But already the success of the Franco-Bavarian alliance had suffered serious modifications. Frederick the Great had shown by his short-lived Treaty of Klein-Schnellendorf, on October 9th, that he was by no means a trustworthy ally. What was more followed the example of Frederick, and also withdrew from the war. A sudden surprise to the French. Fleury was "*stupéfait et navré*," against the government, for the only apparent effect of the invasion of Germany seemed to be that a French army was shut up in Prague.

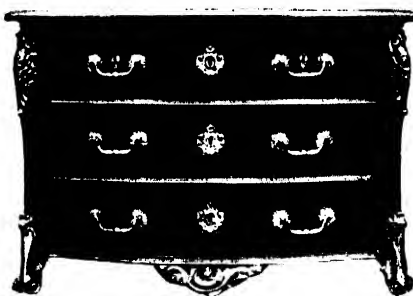
Retirement from Prague thus became necessary, and in December, 1742, Belleisle, at the head of a force that only numbered fourteen thousand, evacuated the city, and with a loss of some twelve hundred, who perished from cold, managed to reach France. On January 23rd, 1743, the aged Fleury died, leaving France in a state of confusion, and on the verge of a war with England. A year earlier, in February, 1742, the peace-loving Walpole had fallen, and the conduct of British foreign policy had



By permission of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

A NECKLACE.

Wrought of enamelled gold, set with table-cut diamonds and hung with a polished sapphire and a pearl. Of seventeenth century workmanship.



A CHEST OF DRAWERS.

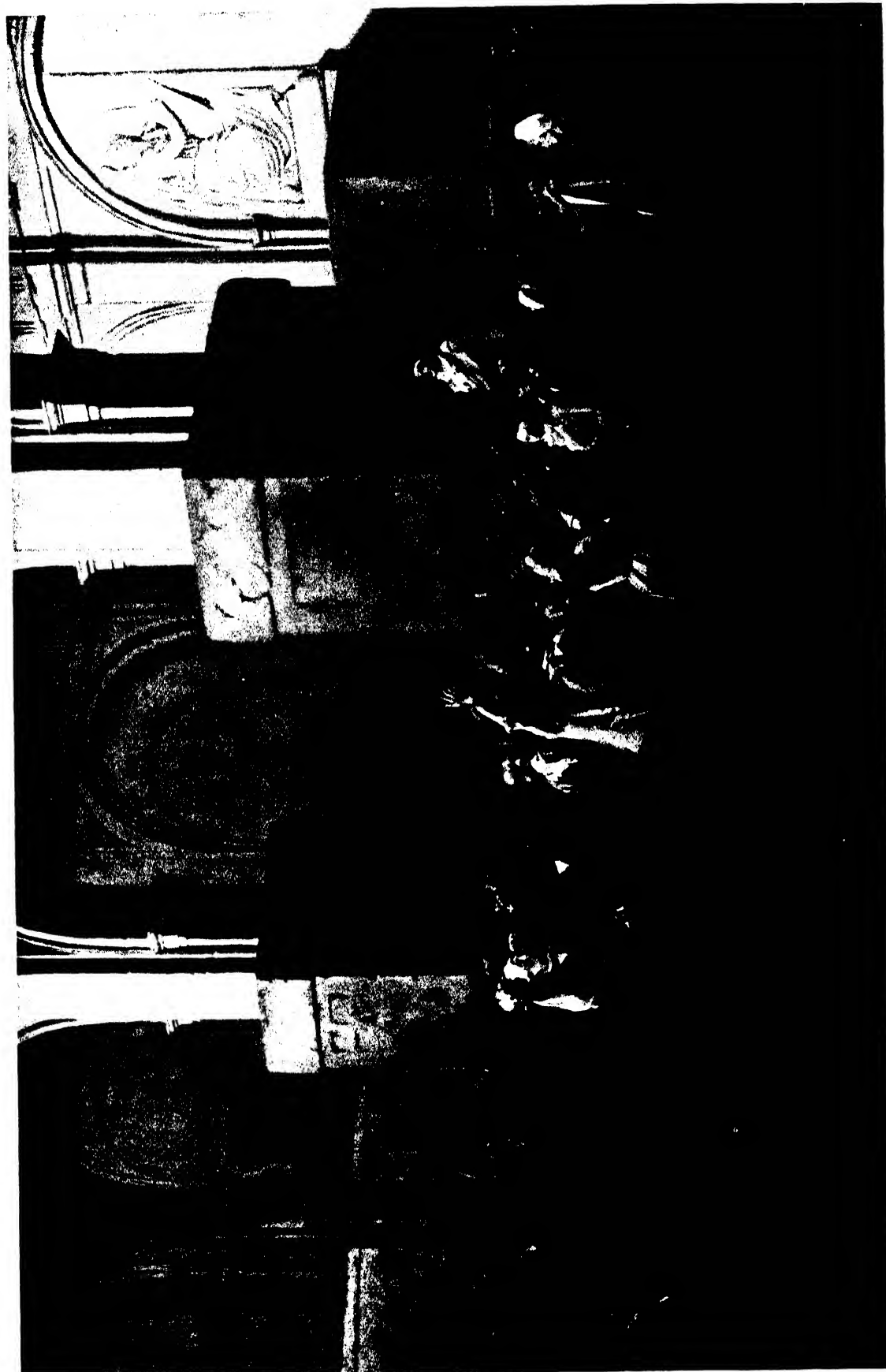
A beautiful piece of furniture made of ornamental woods and mounted with ormolu. Belongs to the period of Louis XV.



A COMMODE.

"Bouille" work, richly ornamented with mountings of ormolu. A characteristic specimen of the furniture of Louis XV. period.

Bavaria to the imperial throne, and on May 18th he concluded the Treaty of Nymphenburg with Spain and Bavaria, a treaty which was shortly afterwards joined by Saxony and Sardinia. The possessions of the Hapsburgs were to be divided among the contracting parties, and thus France, having destroyed the chief German power, would hold a dominating influence on the Continent. On June 7th a convention with serious, Maria Theresa had secured the support of the Hungarians, and on the very day of the coronation of Charles VII. her armies had occupied Munich. Moreover, after a short and successful campaign, Frederick had agreed to listen to the advice of British plenipotentiaries, and on July 28th had concluded the Treaty of Berlin with Maria Theresa, his possession of Silesia being fully recognized. Before long the Elector of Saxony followed. These startling events came as a and in Paris feeling ran high who aimed at a renewal of a European combination against France, such as existed during the Spanish Succession War. His influence had contributed to bring about peace between Austria and Prussia, and in consonance with his views a Hanoverian army, under George II., had defeated the French in the battle of Dettingen on June 26th, 1743. The objects of British intervention on behalf of Maria Theresa had now been carried out; peace had been signed between Austria and Prussia, and Maria Theresa was secure



Painted by J. L. Boulle.

THE TRIUMPH OF MARAT. 1793.

There was bitter and implacable hatred between the fanatic Marat and the Girondists, who represented the moderate Republican party, and an unrelenting struggle was waged between them from January to May, 1793. Marat accused the Girondists for their moderate opinions, and they in turn attacked him. The Girondists were the first to be victorious, and Marat was put on trial before the Revolutionary Tribunal. But their victory ruined them, for Marat was acquitted, and the people carried him back to the Convention in triumph.



[Painted by]

THE OATH OF THE TENNIS-COURT.

[Coulter.]

The action of the Third Estate in declaring for a national legislature was opposed by the king and nobles, who refused the deputies admittance to the Salle des Menus Plaisirs. They thereupon proceeded to a tennis-court, where it was proposed they should not separate until the constitution was established. With one exception they swore to the oath.

England, and Sardinia signed the Treaty of Worms; in October France and Spain made the Treaty of Fontainebleau (the Second Family Compact); on March 10th, 1744, Louis XV. officially declared war upon England, the chief *casus belli* being the piratical acts of English vessels, and on April 26th he proclaimed war upon Austria on the ground that Maria Theresa was attempting to recover Alsace and Lorraine.

From 1744 to 1748 France made desperate and not wholly unsuccessful efforts to maintain her position in Europe, and war raged in Italy, on the Rhine, and in the Netherlands. In 1744 Frederick the Great, fearful that if the French were defeated the Austrians might endeavour to recover Silesia, entered upon the Second Silesian War. From the French point of view, the Second Silesian War was important from the fact that as a consequence the Austrian troops were withdrawn from Italy, and Charles Emanuel of Sardinia was left to hold his own against the French and Spaniards. He was defeated in the battle of Bassignano on September 28th, 1745, and many of his towns were occupied by the enemy. At this moment d'Argenson thought the time had come to carry out his scheme of forming all the Italian states into a republic, such as existed in Switzerland, and Charles Emanuel entered into negotiations with the French minister, and signed a provisional agreement on December 25th.

Meanwhile, Maria Theresa's husband, Francis, had been elected emperor on September 12th, while the Austrian troops were suffering defeat at the hands of Frederick the Great. But in December the Treaty of Dresden ended the Second Silesian War, and Austrian troops poured into Italy. Charles Emanuel took the offensive, and before long the French and Spaniards were driven headlong from Italy, having lost some

in her dominions. A general pacification was, however, not secured, partly because Maria Theresa, fired by her recent successes, aimed at securing Bavaria as a set-off to her loss of Silesia, and at recovering Alsace and Lorraine, which had formerly belonged to the Empire. Her warlike views agreed with those of Carteret and a party in England which desired to see France in the position which she held at the time of the Peace of the Pyrenees in 1659. The war, therefore, became general. In September, 1743, Austria, Eng-



[Painted by Inghelssis.]

[Photo by Levy]

LOUIS XVI., 1754-1793.

Louis was successful in relieving the country of some of the worst taxes and in making small reforms, but he was not strong-willed enough to effect a real reformation. Though popular at first he declined in favour, being overborne by the reactionary influence of Marie Antoinette and others. He was executed on the 20th of January, 1793.

twelve thousand men in a decisive battle at Piacenza on June 19th. Don Philip fled to Aix-en-Provence, while Genoa yielded to the Austrian army and an English fleet. On July 9th, Ferdinand VI. succeeded Philip V. as King of Spain, while in France d'Argenson fell from power. Disappointment also attended the anticipations of the French government of a successful rising in Scotland against the English supremacy. The opening of a definite war between England and France had been followed, as Walpole had always prophesied, by a Jacobite invasion of Scotland. The temporary success of Charles Edward, however, closed on April 16th, 1746, with his total defeat at Culloden, and the hopes which Louis XV. had entertained from the Jacobite adventure were dashed to the ground.

In the Netherlands, however, the French had won the battle of Fontenoy on May 11th, 1745, and



Painted by]

[H. Singleton.

THE CAPTURE OF THE BASTILLE, 1789.

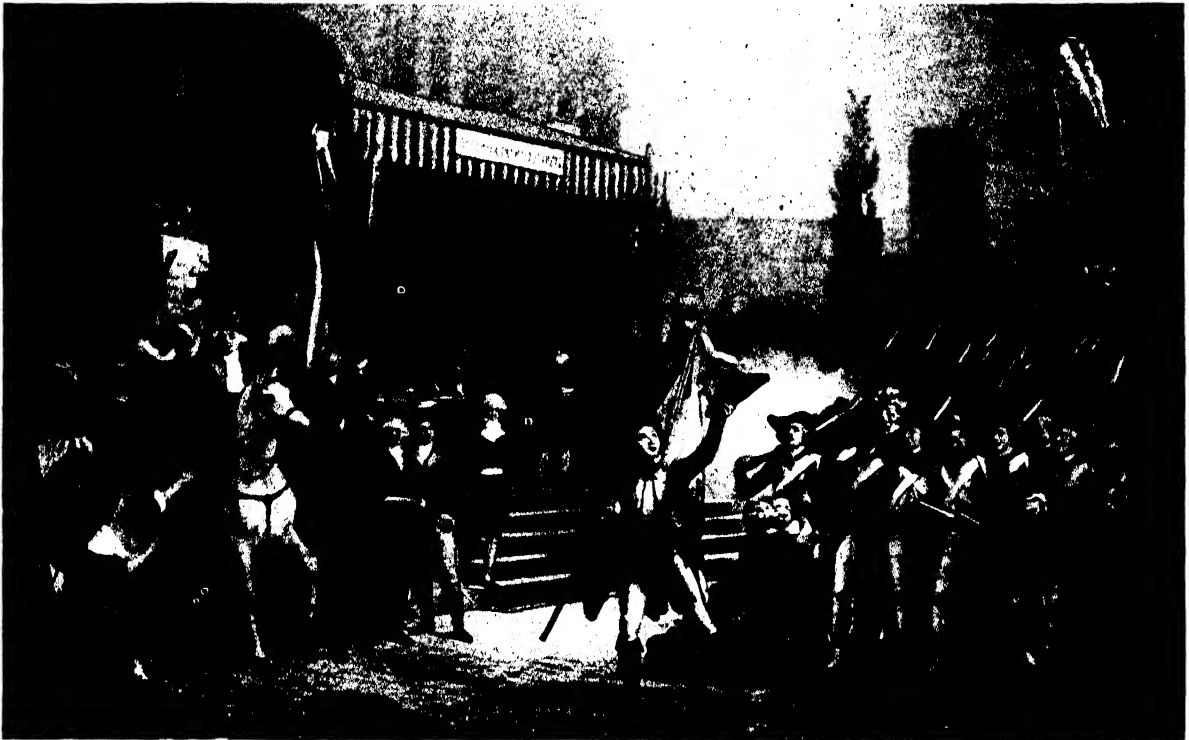
The Bastille had been a stronghold of feudalism in which it was customary to detain persons without trial by *lettres-de-cachet*, and its capture signalized to all Europe the downfall of absolute monarchy in France. The populace of Paris had long been in a state of ferment, for food was dear and work scarce, and the king had declared for fiscal rather than social reforms. The army was on the verge of revolt, and after a short resistance De Launay, Governor of the Bastille, capitulated.

Marshal Saxe was deservedly the hero of the hour. Tournay had been taken as well as Ghent, Oudenarde, and Bruges. In 1746 no less than in 1745, France found in the Netherlands some compensation for her losses elsewhere. Brussels fell at the beginning of the year, and before its close Mons, Namur, Antwerp, Huy, and Charleroi were all held by the French, who, on October 11th, had defeated the allies at Raucoux. Maria Theresa only occupied Limburg and Luxemburg, and a French invasion of Holland was threatened. In 1747 Saxe won his last battle at Lauffeld (July 2nd), and drove the English behind the Meuse. On September 16th, Lowendal captured Berg-op-Zoom, a town hitherto considered impregnable, and Holland lay open to invasion.

All the combatants, except Austria, were now ready for peace. Though France had won so many brilliant victories in the Netherlands, she had suffered heavily elsewhere. Cape Breton Island had been lost by the capture of Louisburg on June 27th 1745, her navy had been in great part destroyed, her

commerce had been for the time ruined. She had indeed held her own in India, and her position in Canada was apparently strong. But an alliance had been concluded between Russia and Austria in 1746, and a Russian army of twenty-five thousand men had already arrived in Germany.

Early in 1748 England, irritated with her allies the Dutch, opened negotiations for peace, and Saint-Severin, the French envoy, met Lord Sandwich at Aix-la-Chapelle. Preliminaries of peace were signed on April 11th, and six months later were converted into the definite Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle. France restored Madras, England restored Louisburg (the Dunkirk of North America) and Cape Breton Island, and Maria Theresa had to give up Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to Don Philip. The Stuarts were to be expelled from France, and the fortifications of Dunkirk were demolished. The Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle was thus unlike the Treaty of Utrecht, for it was merely a truce in the final struggle for



From a painting by Vinchon.

[Photo by Levy, Paris.]

ENROLLING VOLUNTEERS IN 1792.

In June, 1792, France was at war with Austria and Prussia in Belgium, and after some small successes the French troops were compelled to retire to Lille. The news of this reverse was received in Paris with dismay. A declaration was issued to the public on July 11th in which it was stated that the country was in danger, and a fervent appeal was made for volunteers.

supremacy in India and Canada, which had definitely begun in 1740. It gave England and France a breathing-time of eight years before the decisive struggle took place.

During the period of uneasy peace prelude to the Seven Years' War, French ministers worked indefatigably to prepare for the coming struggle. Dupleix in India continued his efforts to establish French influence, and to exclude that of England. In America efforts were no less strenuously made to confine the English to country between the Alleghanies and the sea, and fortified posts were set up between Canada and Louisiana. To restore the French fleet and to establish close commercial relations between the Colonies and the Mother Country was the work of the indefatigable Rouillé and Machault, whose periods of office extended from 1749 to 1757.

These ministers, however, were but feebly supported by Louis XV., whose chief idea was to maintain peace at any price. Unconscious of the fatal blow which he was dealing at the French power in India, he recalled Dupleix in 1754, with the immediate result that his successor, Godeheu, made a treaty with the English sacrificing all his predecessor's conquests. But no sacrifices on the part of Louis could avert



From the painting

ROUGET-DE-LISLE SINGING THE MARSEILLAISE FOR THE FIRST TIME.

[By Jidore Andrien Auguste Pitt.]

When Claude Joseph Rouget-de-Lisle wrote and composed the national anthem of Republican France in 1792 he was a captain of the engineers stationed at Strasbourg. The incident depicted above occurred at the house of M. Dietrich, the mayor of that city. The Marseillaise was originally called by its author "A Song of the Rhine," but it received its popular name from the fact that the troops from Marseilles brought it to Paris on July 29th, 1792. This famous war march was described by Carlyle as "the luckiest musical composition ever promulgated."

the inevitable struggle in Canada, India, and America. In 1754 Washington and the Virginian militia were defeated by a French force, and in 1755 General Braddock suffered a more serious reverse, while nearer home some three hundred ships, with eight thousand French sailors, were captured by the English fleet. War between England and France had not formally broken out, and when Louis XV.'s government asked for an explanation, the only reply was the seizure of the *Alcide* and *Lys*, two French frigates, by Admiral Boscawen. These acts proved to be the prelude of the Seven Years' War, which took the form in Europe of a struggle between Austria, Russia, and France against Frederick the Great of Prussia. The outbreak of the European war in 1756 completely deranged the policy of Louis XV. in Poland, Sweden, and Turkey.

The year 1755 saw the beginning of a Diplomatic Revolution. War was in the air, and in August Maria Theresa, at the instance of Kaunitz, refused to renew the treaty between Austria and England. George II., anxious about the safety of Hanover, made arrangements for its defence by a Russian force; but the prospect of a Russian army within reach of Berlin led Frederick the Great to accept with alacrity an English alliance, and on January 16th the so-called Second Treaty of Westminster proved the first act in the Diplomatic Revolution. Isolated in Europe, the French government decided after much hesitation on the part of Louis XV., to make on May 1st, 1756, the First Treaty of Versailles with Austria, which continued till 1792. This Treaty of Versailles had disastrous effects for France, for it was supplemented a year later by a Second Treaty of Versailles, which bound France to support Austria with men and money. Thus France made a mistake, more disastrous than the one made in 1741, when she joined in the scramble for the Hapsburg territories. For in 1756 she entered into the final struggle with England for Canada and for supremacy in India, and her true policy was to concentrate all her efforts upon the preservation of her hold of the former and her influence in the latter country. Instead of doing so, she allowed herself to fritter away her resources in the European war, and to see her excellent troops defeated owing to inefficient generals and officers. In the opening scenes of the war France appeared to be superior to England. On June 28th,



THE BATTLE OF VALMY, 1792.

The Battle of Valmy was the turning-point in the first campaign of the French revolutionary wars. The French infantry, of doubtful repute, stood their ground, whilst the artillery in a famous cannonade earned the reputation as the best in Europe. After a spiritless attack by the Prussian infantry, the Duke of Brunswick broke off the engagement and retired.



Painted by]

[A. Rimore.

THE REVOLUTIONARY MOB IN THE TUILERIES.

On June 20th, 1792, the Tuileries was besieged and the doors were forced by a mob of twenty thousand men and women, who demanded an audience with Louis XVI. The queen and Madame Elizabeth, the king's sister, maintained a bearing of quiet dignity when they were attacked by the infuriated mob, who were not dispersed from the palace until the evening.

1756, the French took Malta, while in August Montcalm captured Oswego. Similar successes were gained in the summer and early autumn of 1757 by D'Estrées, who, on July 26th, defeated the army of the Duke of Cumberland at Hastenbach, and on September 6th, by Richelieu, who forced the Duke of Cumberland to sign the Convention of Kloster-Seven. Though Lally took Fort St. David in June, 1758, the French successes reached their high-water mark at Kloster-Seven; for some two months later, on November 5th, 1758, they suffered a total defeat at the hands of Frederick the Great at Rossbach. Moreover, the substitution of Ferdinand of Brunswick for the Duke of Cumberland in command of the Electoral army deprived the French army of all hope of any future successes in Germany, though by the Third Treaty of Versailles (December 30th, 1753) Choiseul had doubled the subsidy paid by France to Austria.

The years 1758, 1759, and 1760 proved momentous in the history of France. For in those years she lost Canada, and all hope of establishing her influence in India. Her defeats in Europe at Creveld and Minden were of slight importance when compared with the loss of Quebec on September 18th, 1759, and her defeat at Wandersash on January 22nd, 1760, by Sir Eyre Coote. The surrender of Montreal followed soon after the fall of Quebec, and the English took possession of all Canada. The year that saw the English capture Quebec also witnessed the practical destruction of the French sea-power, for in that year the Toulon fleet was dispersed by Boscawen, and the Brest fleet suffered a disastrous defeat at the hands of Hawke on November 20th in Quiberon Bay.

The European policy followed by France had failed as disastrously as in the Austrian Succession War. In that war France had aimed at the destruction of the Hapsburg power, which, however,

at the close of hostilities in 1748 was found to be stronger than had been the case for many years. In the Seven Years' War France had, with Austria, planned the destruction of the kingdom of Prussia. The close of that war had found that kingdom triumphant and on an equality with its implacable foe Austria.

In France Choiseul, who had succeeded Bernis in October, 1758, as chief minister, and who had proved himself a capable diplomatist, gave evidence of his capacity as a minister. He had won over Madame de Pompadour, and, consequently, was for many years the most powerful man in France. But, like many others of his contemporaries, he anticipated success for the Austro-French alliance in Germany, and did not realize till too late that the vital issues, so far as France was concerned, were being decided in India, in Canada, and on the sea. Two months after his accession to office he completely threw aside Bernis' project of concluding peace as soon as possible, and undertook to assist Austria till Frederick the Great had been forced to yield Silesia. In return



Painted by]

[Eugène Delacroix.

THE GIRONDISTS.

The Girondists, who represented the moderate Republican party, endeavoured to save Louis XVI. when he was on trial for his life in 1792. Their failures and the growing power of the Jacobin faction rendered the position of the Girondists perilous, and they were subsequently accused of conspiracy and condemned to death. Delacroix has shown in the picture the condemned men answering the roll-call of the turnkey.

for the sacrifices which France was prepared to make in Germany, Austria could not give any assistance to France in the struggle of Louis XV. against England. The result was that while engaged in a fruitless struggle on the Rhine and in Western Germany, France lost her colonial empire.

Choiseul, indeed, had made energetic efforts to save that empire, and had meditated an invasion of England. Anticipating Napoleon's camp at Boulogne in 1803-5, he assembled troops at Dunkirk and in Brittany, while fleets were in readiness at Toulon and Brest to aid in the expedition against Great Britain. But after Hawke had given a finishing blow to Choiseul's schemes by his victory in Quiberon Bay, that minister, recognizing the fact, endeavoured to make peace with the government of George II.

Pitt's proposals, however, were such as no French minister could accept, and Choiseul was compelled to fall back on that renewal of the offensive and defensive alliance with Spain, known as the Third Family Compact. That alliance proved of no practical value, but Pitt having resigned office, it became possible to open negotiations with England. The preliminaries of peace were signed at Fontainebleau on November 3rd, 1762, and took final form in the Peace of Paris, on February 20th, 1763. Five



From the picture]

LOUIS XVI. AND HIS FAMILY IN THE TEMPLE.

[By E. M. Ward, R.A.]

Three days after their departure from the Palace of the Tuileries the royal family of France were taken as prisoners from the Feuillants to the Château du Temple and confined in a high square tower of this medieval building. There was a library in the Temple, and the king passed much of his time reading the classics. The Dauphin received instruction from Louis, from Marie Antoinette and Madame Elizabeth. The king's small supply of linen was mended by the princesses, and Madame Elizabeth continued this task even after the scissors had been taken away, biting the thread with her teeth.



From the painting]

[by Flameney, in the Luxembourg.

THE CALL OF THE GIRONDISTS.

On June 2nd, 1793, thirty-two Girondist deputies named by Marat were arrested in the Tuileries, where the Convention sat. The Palace had been surrounded by 100,000 armed men on the previous day, who were maintained there until the Girondists had bowed to the will of the people. The prisoners spent the night before execution at supper together. In the morning they passed out as their names were called.

days later Prussia and Austria concluded the Treaty of Hubertsburg, and the Seven Years' War came to an end.

Few wars have proved so disastrous to France, for she not only lost her fleets and her colonies, but she saw an important addition made to the power and reputation of England, Prussia, and Russia, while her alliance with Austria proved of little value. Canada was lost; the future supremacy of Great Britain in India was an assured fact; her possessions in the West Indies were diminished; Minorca had to be ceded. Moreover, her military and political prestige had suffered a severe blow, and, in a word, the close of the Seven Years' War left her in a position ill-suited to meet the ever-growing discontent which eventuated in the French Revolution.

THE DYING MONARCHY, 1763-1789

No sooner was the Seven Years' War concluded than Choiseul took in hand the reorganization of the army. In 1761 he relinquished the management of foreign affairs to his cousin, the Duc de Choiseul-Praslin, and became Minister of War and the Marine. These departments could not have been in more capable hands, and within ten years Choiseul was again willing to try conclusions with England. During the period from 1763 to 1770, the year of his dismissal from office, he saw the downfall of the Jesuits in France, the definite inclusion of Lorraine in the French monarchy in 1766, the annexation of Corsica in 1768, the overthrow of the *Parlements* in 1770, and he was a helpless observer of the preliminary steps towards the First Partition of Poland. He witnessed, too, the division of Europe into what amounted to two leagues—that of the Bourbon powers and that of Russia and Prussia, whose alliance dated from 1764, the year which saw the downfall of the Jesuits in France.

During these busy years from the close of the Seven Years' War Choiseul occupied himself chiefly with the reorganization of the army and navy, and made no attempt to secure the equally necessary reorganization of the finances. By nature a sceptic, he was interested in the liberal philosophy then prevalent, and contributed no little to the suppression of the Jesuits in France. This line of action, while it secured for him the support of the *Parlement* of Paris, rendered the French Church his bitter enemy, and its influence contributed to his fall in 1770. His fall was hastened by the fact that he had brought France to the verge of a war with England. Spain, on account of the "affair" of the Falkland Islands, was anxious to embark upon hostilities, but Louis engaged in a struggle with the *Parlement* of

Paris, with which Choiseul was closely connected, dismissed the minister and abolished the *Parlement*. In 1774 Louis XVI., who had married Marie Antoinette of Austria, became king. In Turgot and Vergennes he found capable home and foreign ministers. Turgot's name will always be associated with his attempts to carry out many useful reforms, but the *Parlement* of Paris, which Louis unfortunately restored, opposed Turgot, whom Louis dismissed in May, 1776. His fall was a disaster for the monarchy, for the efforts of Necker and his successors failed to place the finances on a sound basis. Their failure was, in part, due to the entry of France into the war of the American colonies against England in the year 1778.

The decision of the French government to embark upon this war proved momentous, both for Great Britain and for France. The struggle between Great Britain and the colonies entered upon a new phase. Vergennes wisely refused to enter into a European war on behalf of Bavaria, and joined Russia in mediating the Treaty of Teschen in 1779. Disaster followed disaster to the British arms; Spain attacked Gibraltar; Holland declared war, and in 1783, by the Treaty of Versailles, the independence of the United States was recognized. For France, however, the war had serious results, for while Great Britain found in the expansion of her power in India, and in the acquisition of Australia and New Zealand, some compensation for her loss of the American colonies, France paid a severe penalty for her successful efforts to deal a severe blow to British power and prestige.

Under the younger Pitt Great Britain revised her financial system, while the industrial revolution was steadily proceeding and bringing to the country fresh sources of wealth. With France the situation was very different. She emerged from the war triumphant, but in a semi-bankrupt condition. Till the death of Vergennes, her able foreign minister, the seriousness of her financial position was not realized by Europe. But after the death of Vergennes, in February, 1787, it soon became apparent that national bankruptcy stared France in the face. While Great Britain, Prussia and Holland were forming the famous Triple Alliance of 1788, which gave the law to the greater part of Europe till 1792, France was sinking rapidly into a condition which necessitated a revolution.

Ever since the death of Louis XIV. dissatisfaction among the various classes in France at the system of government under which they lived had shown itself. In the absence of meetings of the States-General



Painted by]

LAST VICTIMS OF THE REIGN OF TERROR.

[Muller.

On Robespierre's advent to power as head of the Committee of Public Safety, Terrorism became official. People of noble birth and relatives of *émigrés* unable to produce a card as Republican citizens became suspect and were sent to execution on the flimsiest pretext. A guard is calling the names of those who may be seen going out to execution from a throng of waiting men and women



By permission of]

[Lévy Frères, Paris.

ROBESPIERRE (1758-1794).

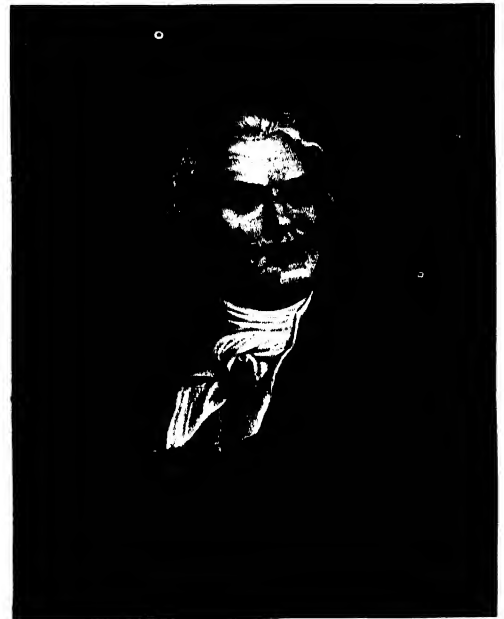
The famous revolutionary leader known as "The Incorruptible" is identified with "The Reign of Terror." After Mirabeau's death his power and influence increased, and he was elected a member of the Committee of Public Safety in 1793, but was overthrown in the Convention on July 27th, 1793, and met the same fate as Danton.

true to say that even as late as 1787, "no one in France had the faintest presentiment of the catastrophe that was preparing." Between 1783, the year of the close of the American War, and 1787, the year of the Revolution in Holland, the French monarchy seemed to enjoy the highest degree of consideration. But after the death of Vergennes the Revolution became imminent.

The resistance of the *parlements* to the Crown was, however, but one of the many indications of the general discontent in France during the greater part of the eighteenth century. The constant wars, together with the extravagance of the Court, and the financial methods of successive governments, had roused throughout France a feeling of despair. The view of the upper classes that the poor were merely a source of income, however, caused the rise of a set of men called *philosophes*, who took under consideration the state of the laws in France, and laid down theories regarding finance, agriculture, economics, and government which were totally at variance with those held by the ruling classes. "The sight of so many privileges, both mischievous and absurd, which pressed more and more heavily on society," writes de Tocqueville, "forced the thought of the *philosophes* towards the idea of the essentials

popular feeling found expression in the *Parlement* of Paris, which met occasionally in the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI., and which received support from the twelve provincial *parlements*. The *Parlement* of Paris claimed the right of remonstrance against the royal edicts and the power of veto upon legislation. In 1731 it attacked the ecclesiastical authorities, and several of its members were exiled amid manifestations of popular sympathy.

The political interests of the *Parlement* were at the same time as important as its religious ones, for it questioned the right of the Crown to impose taxes without its assent, and the right of the Council of State to annul its decrees. This last question came to a head in 1770, when the king annulled the sentence which the *Parlement* had pronounced upon the Duc d'Aiguillon, who had been accused of abuses in his government of Brittany. The *Parlement* refused to continue its judicial duties, an *impasse* followed, and on the night of January 20th, 1771, Louis executed a *coup d'état*. The *Parlement* of Paris was suppressed, and before the close of the year its suppression was followed by that of the provincial *parlements*. The *parlements* were restored soon after the accession of Louis XVI., but this time the "opposition to the Court fell almost exclusively into the hands of men of letters, who had no practical experience in the conduct of affairs." Nevertheless, in spite of this opposition and of the growing seriousness of the financial position, it is



From an engraving]

[By W. H. Mote.

GEORGES JACQUES DANTON.

One of the most notable of the French Revolutionists (1759-1794), led the attack on the Tuileries on August 10th, 1792. He was Minister of Justice, and moved the formation of the Revolutionary Tribunal in March, 1793. He was overthrown by Robespierre, and was guillotined in 1794.

of life." These *philosophes* recognized the dignity of man, and thus were at once brought into direct variance with the theories held at Versailles. They had, indeed, no practical experience of politics, and therefore attacked all existing institutions, customs, and popular beliefs. There was, however, plenty of justification for their attacks. Inequality was the chief characteristic of France in the eighteenth and preceding centuries. The privileged classes included the nobility of the sword, the *noblesse de robe*—i.e., the *Parlement*, the *noblesse de finance*, and the *noblesse d'administration*. These classes had hereditary rights which were passed on to their descendants, and in 1780 Necker declared that there were four thousand offices which secured to their holders hereditary nobility. All privileged persons were practically free from payment of taxes, as was the Church, and also a great number of the middle classes, who were employed in government service. "I have no doubt," says de Tocqueville,



From the painting

[By Von Piloty.]

GIRONDISTS ON THEIR WAY TO THE GUILLOTINE.

The tumbrils containing the Girondists who had been condemned to death after a mere mockery of a trial are shown passing the knitting women, whose callous indifference to the tragedies enacted before them became proverbial. The body of Valazé, who committed suicide with a poniard on hearing the sentence of death passed upon him, was taken in one of the tumbrils and thrown with the guillotined bodies into the same ditch.

"that the number of those exempted was as great and often greater among the middle class than among the nobility."

Montesquieu, who died in 1755, in his writings, which illustrated the existing ferment in political ideas, had given an impetus to the intellectual development which was making remarkable progress in France, and after the Seven Years' War the appearance of the works of Rousseau, the Encyclopædists, and Voltaire still further aroused the attention of all classes. In his "Emile," which appeared in 1762, Rousseau predicted that "Europe was approaching a state of crisis and the age of revolutions." Three years later a general assembly of the French clergy, indignant at the expulsion of the Jesuits, condemned not only the works of Rousseau, but also those of Helvetius, of Diderot, and even of Voltaire, though "his theory of government was essentially monarchical."

Voltaire had no wish for organic change, but merely desired administrative reform. He rightly condemned the cruel and absurd system of punishments which, indeed, existed in England; he wished to simplify the law, to abolish the sale of offices, to equalize taxation. By his suggestions for the diminution



Engraved by Carden]

[From a painting by H. Hamilton.

MARIE ANTOINETTE LED TO EXECUTION.

On the morning of October 16th, 1793, the Queen of France was conducted to the tumbril with her hands tied very tightly behind her back. Instead of her usual mourning robe she put on a white *negligée* dress, a large muslin fichu, and a small white cap. About noon the cart reached the spot where the guillotine stood. The queen jumped down without assistance, and remained calm and dignified until the axe fell and the basket received another head.

of the power of the priests, whom he held in profound contempt, he roused the enmity of the still powerful French Church. His keen intellect refused to accept Rousseau's chief doctrines, and he resented the increasingly fashionable talk about equality. He had no sympathy with democratic ideas. His ideal government would have been one in which a wise sovereign "regulated his conduct by fixed law, gave religious and intellectual liberty to his people, and favoured administrative reform." In the revolutionary times, however, which were now approaching the influence of Montesquieu and Voltaire paled before that of Rousseau. The Bible of the men who eventually led the French Revolution was Rousseau's "Contrat Social": "All men are equal," was a statement which appealed to the majority of Frenchmen. And Rousseau's conclusion from the statement was that every member of the community had a right to vote upon all laws. "The moment," he says, "the government usurps the sovereignty the social compact is broken, and all the simple citizens regaining by right their natural liberty are forced, but not morally obliged, to obey." Such views were in reality only applicable to, say, a small Swiss canton, where the whole population could meet to enact laws, and Rousseau himself declared that he had in his mind the aristocratic republic of Geneva. But the influence of the "Contrat Social" in France was immense, and explains the fanaticism of many of the revolutionary leaders, such as Robespierre and St. Just.

The first direct step towards the outbreak of the Revolution was taken in August, 1787, when the *Parlement* of Paris refused to register some decrees imposing new taxes. Its consequent exile to Troyes

made it very popular, and it was recalled. On May 8th, 1788, Louis produced a number of admirable reforms for it to register, and promised to summon the States-General. Popular movements took place in Brittany and Dauphiné, and Louis called the States-General for May 5th, 1789.

THE REVOLUTION, 1789-1799

ON May 5th, 1789, the meeting of the States-General took place. The struggle between the orders ended on June 17th in a declaration by the deputies of the *Tiers État* that they constituted the National Assembly. Between that date and the capture of the Bastille on July 14th an anxious period was passed. It was very doubtful whether the king might not use the troops in order to overawe Paris. The capture of the Bastille, however, changed the whole situation. Louis XVI. visited Paris on July 17th, Bailly was appointed mayor and La Fayette commander of the National Guard of Paris. Thus one effect of the fall of the Bastille was the establishment of the supremacy of Paris. Another effect was the first migration of the nobles, who now realized that their influence was over. A further effect was the strengthening of the power of the Assembly and the recall of Necker. On the provinces the effects of the fall of the Bastille were somewhat serious. It led to attacks on the country houses of the nobles and to the general dislocation of all authority. At first, however, the Assembly received the reports of the state of France with equanimity, and on the 4th of August, in a frenzy of excitement, the young nobles sacrificed all their feudal privileges; thus the relics of feudalism were abolished. The duty of the Assembly was now to construct a new system of central and local



Painted by]

[J. J. Weertz.

ASSASSINATION OF MARAT BY CHARLOTTE CORDAY, 1793.

Excited by the downfall of the Girondists, with whose ideas she sympathized, Charlotte Corday set out from Caen for Paris with the determination to avenge them. Marat appeared to her the most ferocious and uncompromising opponent of the Girondists, and gaining admittance to his house she stabbed him as he lay in his bath.

administration. But for two months it busied itself with drawing up a constitution which was theoretical and unsatisfying. It decided that the National Chamber should consist of one chamber, and that the king could only suspend the passing of a bill for six months. All this time the Parisians were regarding the work of the Assembly at Versailles with suspicion. It feared some action on the part of the Court, and decided that the presence of the king in Paris would ensure the country against a counter revolution. On October 5th a mob of women marched on Versailles, and on October 6th the king and royal family were brought to Paris, followed by the Assembly, which met in the riding-school near the Tuileries. The Revolution had in reality fallen into the hands of the mob, though the *bourgeoisie* of



Painted by]

[H. Scheffer.

ARREST OF CHARLOTTE CORDAY.

Marat's cry for help as Charlotte Corday stabbed him brought people to the room. As they came in she stood before them avowing the deed, but entirely unmoved. She was seized and with difficulty taken through a clamorous throng of people to the prison of the Abbaye. Her execution took place on the 17th of July, 1793.

Paris remained till 1792 the nominal masters of the situation. Mirabeau realized the danger of the position, and endeavoured to persuade the Assembly to appoint a ministry from the Assembly itself. On November 7th his scheme was defeated, the Assembly refusing to undertake openly the responsibility of executive government. Consequently, the disorganization of the army, navy, and civil administration continued, in spite of the efforts of Mirabeau to secure the support of the Court in his scheme for relying upon the provinces against Paris.

In the meantime the condition of France worsened, and in December, 1790, Mirabeau wrote a famous dispatch, urging the king to retire from Paris to Rouen. The king, however, took no action, and on April 2nd, 1791, Mirabeau died. The effect of the removal of his influence was at once seen, for Louis and his family secretly fled from Paris on July 21st, and attempted to leave the country. At Varennes



From the painting

ROBESPIERRE - FACING HIS CAPTORS.

Robespierre hoped by means of his influence in the Jacobin Club to dominate the Commune of Paris, and he determined to push the Terror to its utmost limits there. He aimed at gaining supreme power in France, but his command of affairs was most tyrannical. On his return to the Convention in July, 1794, cries were raised against him, and he was subsequently arrested with four of his colleagues, including his brother Augustin, and taken to the Hôtel de Ville. He was guillotined with others on the 28th of July, 1794 his assassination having previously been attempted by a gendarme

[By J. J. Weerts.]



Painted by]

[P. J. Geiger.

FRENCH STAFF AT THE BATTLE OF NEERWINDEN.

Dumouriez was ordered by the Republican Convention to march against the Austrians, who, under the leadership of the Prince of Coburg, formed one of the countries in coalition against France. At the battle of Neerwinden on the 18th of March, 1793, he was totally defeated and driven from the Netherlands, with a loss of four thousand men.

they were captured and brought back to Paris. This flight increased the suspicions felt by the revolutionists of the king and his supporters. However, in September, the constitution was accepted by the king and the Constituent Assembly was dissolved. At the time of the dissolution of the Assembly there was a general impression in France that the Revolution was now over, and that France would continue to carry out necessary reforms and to preserve peace with its neighbours. Unfortunately, the members of the Constituent Assembly had passed a self-denying ordinance to the effect that no member of the late Assembly could be a member of the new Legislative Assembly. Accordingly, when the Legislative Assembly met on October 1st, 1791, the majority of its members were full of abstract ideas and had no experience in government. Their leaders belonged to the Girondist party, led by Vergniaud, Gensonné, and Gaudet, who were all orators and anxious for severe measures against the *émigrés*, and, if possible, a war with Austria, which was eventually declared by Louis XVI. on April 20th, 1792. The Austrians were joined by the Prussians, and the opening of the war saw a number of French reverses. These reverses were followed by the invasion of the Tuileries on June 20th by a mob, by a proclamation by the Duke of Brunswick, and by the invasion of French Flanders by the Austrians, and of Lorraine and Champagne by the Prussians. The Duke of Brunswick's manifesto and the general belief in France that the Court sympathized with the invaders led to an attack on the Tuileries on August 10th, the suspension of the king, and the practical fall of the monarchy.

September proved an important month in the history of France. Mob rule was followed by the famous September massacres, which took place between the second and sixth of the month, and were immediately caused by the capture of Verdun by the Prussians. The month was also important owing to a French victory at Valmy on the 20th September, a battle which is numbered among the decisive battles of the world. A third event of importance was the meeting of the National Convention, also on the 20th of September. With the meeting of the National Convention,

and the battle of Valmy, a new age for France may be said to be inaugurated. From this time the whole situation was altered and the character of the war changed. The French pushed the Revolution beyond the frontiers and tried to enforce on all nations the edict of fraternity. In France itself the meeting of the National Convention and the first French Republic was marked by the year known as the year 1 of the Republic. Until June, 1793, however, the Jacobins were not in possession of power. The Girondists still constituted the strongest party in the Assembly. They at once attacked the Jacobins, first with regard to the events of August 10th, secondly, with regard to the massacres of September, and they made a premature onslaught upon the Jacobin leaders, Marat, Robespierre, and Danton. The Jacobins retaliated and accused the Girondists of federalism. The trial of the king illustrated the weakness of the Girondist party, for in spite of the weakness of much of the evidence, Louis was condemned to death, and executed on January 21st, 1793.

After Valmy, French armies advanced for the Rhine, and on November 6th Dumouriez defeated the Austrians at Jemappes. Before the year was over Savoy and Belgium were declared annexed to the French Republic, while the revolutionary propaganda decreed on November 19th and December 15th roused the grave suspicion of the English ministry.

On February 1st, 1793, France declared war against George III. and the Stadtholder William V., and the following countries joined in the war against the French Republic, namely, Spain, Portugal, Tuscany, and the two Sicilies; and on March 22nd the Holy Roman Empire followed suit. The disasters to the French armies in the spring and summer of 1793 led to the establishment of the revolutionary tribunal in March, of the first committee of public safety in April, and to the struggle between the Girondists and the Mountain, ending with the overthrow of the former on June 2nd. With the fall of the Girondists, on June 2nd, 1793, begins the Reign of Terror in France, which was inaugurated by the great Committee of Public Safety, established between July and September. Its instruments were, first, the Revolutionary Tribunal, which carried out many executions in Paris, and, secondly, the representatives on mission, who suppressed all internal disturbances. The



Painted by]

[Courl

THE HEAD OF FÉRAUD PRESENTED TO BOISSY D'ANGLAS.

On the 20th of May, 1795, a mob broke into the Convention demanding "bread and the democratic constitution of 1793." Boissy d'Anglas was at the Tribune, and in protecting him from the mob his colleague Féraud was murdered. Féraud's body was dragged into the lobby, where the head was cut off, and afterwards a man returned with it on a pike. Making his way to Boissy d'Anglas he thrust it in his face, to the amusement of the rabble!

Great Committee then restored discipline in the army and navy, and concentrated the resources of France on the foreign war. From the middle of 1793 to the beginning of 1794 the victories of the French armies continued almost without a single reverse. One reason for the success of the French army was to be found in the affairs of Poland, which to a great extent occupied the attention of Prussia and Austria, caused the weakening of the Prussian and Austrian armies on the French frontier, and led to dissensions between the governments of the two countries. In 1794 the victories of the French army increased the desire of several European powers to make peace with the Republic. On June 25th, 1794, one French general had defeated the Austrians at Fleurus and occupied Belgium, while in the autumn another general defeated the Prussians and occupied Trèves. The passes of the Alps were held by French troops and Spain had been invaded. It was only at sea and in the colonies that failure was experienced by the French government. In 1794 most of the French West Indies were conquered by the English, the French settlements in India were seized, and in the battle on the 1st June, 1794, Howe defeated the Brest fleet. The victories of the French at home and on the Continent had, how-

ever, made France quite secure from invasion. It became evident that there was no necessity for the continuance of the Reign of Terror. Freed from all anxiety about the safety of France, the Jacobins began to quarrel among themselves. In March, 1794, Robespierre overthrew two sections of the Jacobins, headed respectively by Hébert and Danton; but on July 28th he himself, with his colleagues, was attacked and guillotined. In 1795, after a struggle in the streets of Paris, in which Napoleon Bonaparte distinguished himself, the government of the Directory, under the constitution of the year 3, was formed.



Painted by]

[Coudet.

INSTALLATION OF THE COUNCIL OF STATE, 1799.

Members were nominated to the Council of State by the First Consul, whose business it was to make and propose laws with the council. The right of discussing such laws rested with a Tribune of one hundred members, and a Legislative Chamber of three hundred was empowered to accept or reject measures without discussion.

France against England, Austria, and Sardinia. In Italy the war assumed very important proportions. It was felt that an invasion of Germany, if combined with successful operations in Italy, would destroy Austrian influence in Europe. While French armies poured into Germany, an Italian army, headed by Bonaparte, commenced operations in the spring of 1796. Having forced the Sardinians to retire from the war, Bonaparte advanced through the north of Italy, so reaching the Alps. The threat of an attack on Vienna led the Austrians to sign preliminaries of peace in April, 1797, at Leoben.

The successful policy of Bonaparte in Italy had a most important effect upon the history of the Directory. From 1795 to 1797 the majority of Frenchmen supported the Directors, being quite determined not to allow the Bourbons and the nobles to return. Till Fructidor (September, 1797), the government of the Directory was, on the whole, of a mild and moderate character. At the same time, there was a widespread hatred of the members of the *Corps Législatif*, many of whom were regarded as closely connected with the late Reign of Terror. Of this feeling the supporters of the Royalists hoped to take advantage. The Directors were attacked, and had it not been for the assistance given by Napoleon, the Directory would have come to an end. As it was, however, Napoleon sent a

In 1795 the war had entered upon a new phase. Prussia had withdrawn from the war, which resolved itself into a struggle of



NAPOLEON BONAPARTE AS FIRST CONSUL.

After the Treaty of Amiens in 1802 Napoleon was made First Consul for life, and became a practical dictator.



NAPOLEON'S MOTHER.

Maria Letizia Ramolino. She lived until 1836—long enough to see her sons occupy the thrones of Europe and their subsequent downfall.



LOUIS BONAPARTE.

A brother of Napoleon, became King of Holland in 1806. Abdicated in 1810. Died at Leghorn 1846.



THE ARCHDUCHESS MARIE LOUISE OF AUSTRIA.

To whom Napoleon was married in April, 1810, after his divorce from the Empress Josephine.



NAPOLEON IN CORONATION ROBES.

He was proclaimed hereditary Emperor of the French on May 18th, 1804, and the coronation ceremony took place on December 2nd.



THE KING OF ROME

Was the son of Napoleon and Marie Louise, born in 1811. When Napoleon was exiled to St. Helena the child was taken by his mother to Schönbrunn.



THE EMPRESS JOSEPHINE

Became the wife of Napoleon in 1796. She was the widow of General Vicomte de Beauharnais. Divorced December 16th, 1809.



JOSEPH BONAPARTE.

Napoleon's eldest brother, was made King of Naples in 1806 and King of Spain 1808. He died at Florence in 1844.



LUCIEN BONAPARTE.

A brother of Napoleon, was Minister of the Interior in 1799 and Prince of Canino in 1814. Died 1840.



Painted by]

[L. F. Lejeune.

THE BATTLE OF MARENGO.

The battle was fought in the plain of Marengo on the 14th of June, 1800. The French and Austrian armies were separated by the river Bormida. A cavalry charge under Kellermann decided the battle, and the Austrians were driven back in confusion across the river. Desaix was mortally wounded, and the losses of either side amounted to about seven thousand killed.

force under Augereau to assist the party in power, and the revolution of 18 Fructidor was carried out. The royalist majority in the councils were crushed; fifty-three Deputies were arrested; the liberty of the press was suspended. Carnot saved himself by flying from the country.

This revolution was the work of the army. It was still dominated by revolutionary fervour, and felt that it was still fighting against feudal Europe. It took no account of the cruelty of the Jacobins or the character of the government of the Directory. The revolution made Bonaparte practically master of the situation. The immediate result was the Treaty of Campo Formio, which the Austrians now hastened to sign. In compensation for the loss of the Milanese Austria was given Venice and the Venetian lands in Istria and Dalmatia. The French frontier was to be the Rhine, and thus the Holy Roman Empire lost Trèves, Mainz, and the Palatinate. On the whole, the treaty was not unfavourable to Austria. Bonaparte had treated her favourably for these reasons: first, war with England still continued, Austria he considered to be far from dangerous, and the real danger, in his opinion, came from the intriguing and active English. In seizing the Ionian Islands Bonaparte's motives are interesting. He believed that the Turkish Empire was crumbling, and that in the event of the partition of its dominions, the possession of the Ionian Islands would enable France to take her share. Further, he looked forward to the time when the naval power of England would be destroyed and when the French would be in possession of Egypt.

As far as France herself was concerned, the revolution of Fructidor destroyed the illusion of Republican Constitutionalism. It distinctly paved the way for the rule of a single man. Mallet du Pan saw that the first general, the first accredited chieftain, who could raise the standard of revolt might carry half the country with him. But Napoleon was hardly yet strong enough to seize the government; and when he suggested overthrowing the English power in the East, the Directory gladly encouraged him. On May 9th, 1798, he sailed from Toulon with about five hundred ships, thirty thousand soldiers, and a company of *savants*. On their way the fleet invested Valetta; the grand master surrendered in June, and Napoleon occupied and reorganized Malta. He arrived at Alexandria on July 1st, and at once attacked the Mamelukes, who were the real rulers of Egypt, which was merely under the nominal suzerainty of the Sultan of Turkey. He marched from Alexandria to the Nile and the battle of the Pyramids. While he was busy conquering Egypt, Nelson won the battle of the Nile, almost entirely destroying the French fleet. Napoleon, however, continued his projects; he crushed a revolt

in Cairo, and invaded Syria, where he took Jaffa, but was repulsed at Acre by Sir Sidney Smith. He then retreated to Egypt in June, 1799, gained a victory over a Turkish force at Aboukir, and returned to France in 1799. His return was rendered necessary by the failure of the Directory in the War of the Second Coalition in 1799.

In that war, in which England, Austria, and Russia took part, the government of the Tsar took the lead. Prussia remained neutral, although France and the allies each contended for her support. What gave the war a peculiar character was the appearance for the first time in history of Russian troops in Italy, where Suvórov, the Russian general, ended the Cisalpine Republic and drove the French out. With him had acted the Austrians, but they afterwards quarrelled with the Russians, who thereupon advanced into Switzerland to support the Russian army at Zurich and to invade France. Unfortunately, on arriving at the top of the St. Gothard Pass, Suvórov heard of the defeat of Korsakov at Zurich on September 26th, by Masséna. Nothing was left for him but to retreat across the mountains into Bavaria. While these operations were in progress, the English and Russians quarrelled in Holland, and the Duke of York made a convention with the French on October 18th. Thus the results of the campaign were complex. It could be said for the French that the Rhine frontier was still intact, and that their hold on Switzerland and Holland was undisturbed. Further, that the quarrels among the Allies had ruined the efficacy of the Coalition. On the other hand, the English victory of the Nile had destroyed the greater part of the French fleet, and the Dutch fleet had been captured in the Texel. Further, the French had lost their hold on Italy, and there is no doubt that this loss of Italy was one of the chief reasons for the revolution of Brumaire and the fall of the Directory in November, 1799.

On arriving in France in October, 1799, Bonaparte found that his popularity was immense. He had won Egypt, it was said, and had taken Palestine, and on his arrival it was quite evident that the Directory had become universally most unpopular. Siéyès, who was the author of the revolution of Brumaire, had for some time been looking for some man of ability who would overthrow the



Painted by]

[Jacques Louis David.

THE CORONATION OF THE EMPRESS JOSEPHINE.

The coronation of the Emperor Napoleon and the Empress Josephine was solemnized in the Cathedral of Notre Dame at Paris on the 2nd of December, 1804. The Pope Pius VII. was present to give his personal benediction. During the ceremony Napoleon took the crown, which had been first blessed by the Pope, and himself placed it on his own head. The Empress then knelt down to be crowned by him.

existing government. Of Siéyès Mallet du Pan wrote the following: "He is the enemy of every power of which he is not the spiritual adviser. He has abolished the nobles because he was not one of them, his own order because he was not an archbishop, the great landowners because he was not rich. He will upset all thrones because Nature has not made him a king." After a short interval Bonaparte finally gained over Siéyès; the other Directors resigned; the council of five hundred was driven out of St. Cloud by the soldiers, and the revolution of Brumaire was accomplished on November 10th, 1799. This revolution, unlike Vendémiaire and Fructidor, both of which were carried out by troops, was popular. It brought to an end the government of the Directory, and established in power the successful general.

THE CONSULATE AND THE EMPIRE, 1799-1814

FROM 1799 to 1804 is the period known as the Consulate. The condition of France gave an unusual opportunity for an able and active statesman and soldier as was Bonaparte. At home the government, when taken up by the First Consul, was without credit and inspired no confidence. The finances were ruined, the South of France was in semi-rebellion, the councils and the executive were in disagreement. All men, says Marbot, understood that some great change was necessary and inevitable, though there was much difference of opinion as to the means. Before, however, Bonaparte could reorganize the internal administration, it was necessary to secure peace with Austria. At the end of 1799, not only Austria, but also Russia and England were at war with France. Of these, Russia was into the upper valley of the Danube. Moreau's advance took place in April, and he succeeded in preventing an Austrian army from Germany uniting with the Austrian army in Italy. Meanwhile Bonaparte crossed the Alps, and on June 14th won the battle of Marengo—the most brilliant, it is said, in conception of all his triumphs. On November 26th Moreau advanced, and on December 3rd won the battle of Hohenlinden. Overcome by these defeats, the Austrians accepted an armistice, and on February 9th the Treaty of Lunéville was signed. By this treaty the Hapsburgs continued to hold Venetian territory, Tuscany was made into the kingdom of Etruria under the influence of Bonaparte, and France took Piedmont.



Painted by

[Thévenin.]

FRANCIS CHARLES AUGEREAU, MARSHAL OF FRANCE, 1757-1816.

At seventeen Augereau enlisted, but owing to a duel he was obliged to fly from France. He returned at the Revolution, having served in turn with the Russian, Prussian and Neapolitan armies. His services with Napoleon's Italian army were recognized by the grant of the Dukedom of Castiglione, but later he fell into disgrace.

easily won over. Paul was irritated at the conduct of the Austrians in the campaign in Italy. He also disliked England's superiority at sea. He was now ready to receive overtures from Bonaparte. He had hated the government of advocates and contractors; he felt drawn to a soldier who hinted that France and Russia would divide the world, and offered to recognize Paul as grand master of the Knights of Malta, which island the English occupied on September 5th. Russia won over, it only remained to force peace upon Austria and England. At this time the Austrians were besieging Genoa, defended by Masséna. Bonaparte determined to cross the Alps, while Moreau advanced

The only power that remained at war with France after the Treaty of Lunéville was England, and Bonaparte made a great endeavour to crush her, first, by a league against her commerce, known as the Armed Neutrality of the North, which included Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark. The league, however, failed, owing, first, to the battle of Copenhagen on March 8th, 1801, by which the Danish fleet was a large part destroyed, and, secondly, to the death of the Tsar Paul I. on the 23rd March, whose successor was opposed to Bonaparte and his plans for the overthrow of England. His



Painted by

NAPOLÉON DISTRIBUTING STANDARDS TO THE ARMY.

In the same year as his coronation, which took place on the 2nd of December, 1804, the Emperor Napoleon received the oath of the army at the Champ-de-Mars. The ceremony of distributing the eagle standards took place first, and afterwards allegiance was taken by the Emperor in the ceremony of dipping the standards. In the First and Third Empires eagles represented the infantry colours. They were so named from the gilt eagles surmounting the staves.

[J. L. David.]



Painted by]

[J. B. Isabey.

NAPOLEON VISITS THE MANUFACTORIES.

In an interval of peace Napoleon found time to interest himself in the industries of France. In June, 1806, he visited, in company with Madame Bonaparte, a silk manufactory at Jouy, where he decorated one named Oberkampf.

second method for the overthrow of England was by an agreement with the King of Naples which would enable him to preserve Egypt and to force Great Britain to make peace. This project, however, failed, as the combined English and Turkish forces won the battle of Alexandria on March 21st, and on September 2nd the French made a convention evacuating Egypt. His third method for overcoming England was by an attack on Portugal, which idea is interesting as anticipating his projects after the Treaty of Tilsit. Spain, at Bonaparte's instigation, attacked Portugal in 1801, but on June 6th she agreed to the Treaty of Badajoz with the Portuguese, who refused to close their ports to English commerce. Thus Napoleon's elaborate schemes against Great Britain failed. The sea-power of Great Britain had dispersed the Northern Coalition, it had retained control of the Mediterranean, it had reduced Egypt to submission, and had forced Bonaparte to desire peace. On March 25th, 1802, the Treaty of Amiens was signed. By that treaty England retained Ceylon and Trinidad, but restored her other conquests. France evacuated Naples and restored Egypt to Turkey. The independence of the Ionian Islands was guaranteed. England also undertook to restore Malta to the Knights when the Powers had guaranteed its neutrality. It must here be remembered that by the Treaty of Lunéville Bonaparte had undertaken to evacuate Holland as soon as peace was made between France and England.

Peace having been made, Napoleon set to work to reorganize the government of France, an opportunity for doing which had been afforded by his victory at Marengo and by the Treaty of Amiens. The constitution of the Consulate had provided for a central administration, in which the ministers were appointed by the First Consul, and for a local administration, which consisted of departments governed each by an elected council presided over by a *préfet* appointed by the First Consul. Towns were governed by an elected council presided over by the mayor, who was appointed by the *préfet*. Civil and criminal tribunals were also set up, and the judges were appointed by the First Consul for



Copyright of the Photochrom Co., Ltd.

THE CHARGE OF THE CUIRASSIERS AT REZONVILLE 1870.

Painted by Morot

The charge of the 7th Prussian Cuirassiers was one of the heroic incidents of the battle of Rezonville, on August 16th, 1870. On reaching the summit of a hill which screened them from the French, they were ordered to charge in line formation. A storm of bullets swept through them before the line was complete, but undaunted they charged the infantry and artillery 1,200 yards in advance. They swept right through the French, but when the latter had recovered from the sudden onslaught, they turned and fired into the Cuirassiers, whilst French cavalry charged them on their flank.

life. With regard to legislation, a complicated system was devised by the advice of Siéyès, the object of which was to prevent one man from becoming supreme. After Marengo and the Treaty of Amiens Napoleon altered the central constitution in many respects. In 1802 he was appointed First Consul for life, the other two Consuls being abolished. The Senate of Eighty was permitted to dissolve the legislative body and the Tribunate, and in other respects to modify the constitution on the initiation of the Consul. With regard to the Church, a Concordat was arranged with the Pope by which the Church was re-established, the First Consul being given the power of nominating archbishops and bishops, who were then to receive canonical investiture from the Pope. The bishops and clergy were to be paid by the State. By means of this compromise with Pope Pius VII., the condition of the Roman Catholic clergy in France was much improved and public worship was legalized. He next, by means of the Code Napoléon, introduced a famous legal system throughout the country. The Code was by no means Napoleon's original conception, but it crystallized the work of the Constituent Assembly and the Committee for Public Safety, and upon it the First Consul stamped the mark of his individual genius. He also introduced a national system of education, and enlisted the rising generation upon his side. He established the *lycées* and the University of France. His system of education was higher and secondary, no provision being made for the education of women or for elementary education.

During the Consulate he gradually made advances towards imperialism, which led eventually to war. Within two years of the Treaty of Amiens the following general causes tended towards a renewal of hostilities, first, with Great Britain, and, secondly, with Austria and Russia. Of these causes the most obvious is the fact that an imperial position demanded continued military successes. Secondly, while England was unconquered, she was a perpetual menace to his power. However, it seems clear that Napoleon did not anticipate the reopening of the war for some years, so that the French fleet could be reorganized and his intrigues in India, in Egypt, and in Ireland might bear fruit. In April, 1803,



From the painting by Pontignat.]

NAPOLEON VISITING THE WOUNDED AFTER ULM, 1805.

[Copyright by Braun et Cie.]

Leaving Paris on September 24th, the Emperor surprised the Austrian army under General Mack by his appearance at the walls of Ulm on October 17th, and he demanded and obtained the immediate surrender of the city. The artist has depicted Napoleon visiting his soldiers at Ulm during this campaign.

however, Great Britain declared war, taking Napoleon by surprise. The immediate cause of the rupture of the Treaty of Amiens was the First Consul's failure to understand the English party system. The weakness of England under Addington led him to suppose that he might break the Treaties of Lunéville and Amiens with impunity, and his astonishment in the spring of 1803 at England's firm attitude was quite real. That attitude was due to, first, the suspicious conduct of Napoleon in Egypt and Ireland, the official libels on England in the *Moniteur*, his aggressions in Piedmont, in the Cisalpine Republic, and in Switzerland; but chiefly the continued occupation of Holland by a French force. Ever since the reign of Edward III. the danger of French intervention in Holland had always led to war between England and France. That danger had justified the struggle between William III. and Louis XIV. in 1689; it had led to the Spanish Succession War, and was



Painted by]

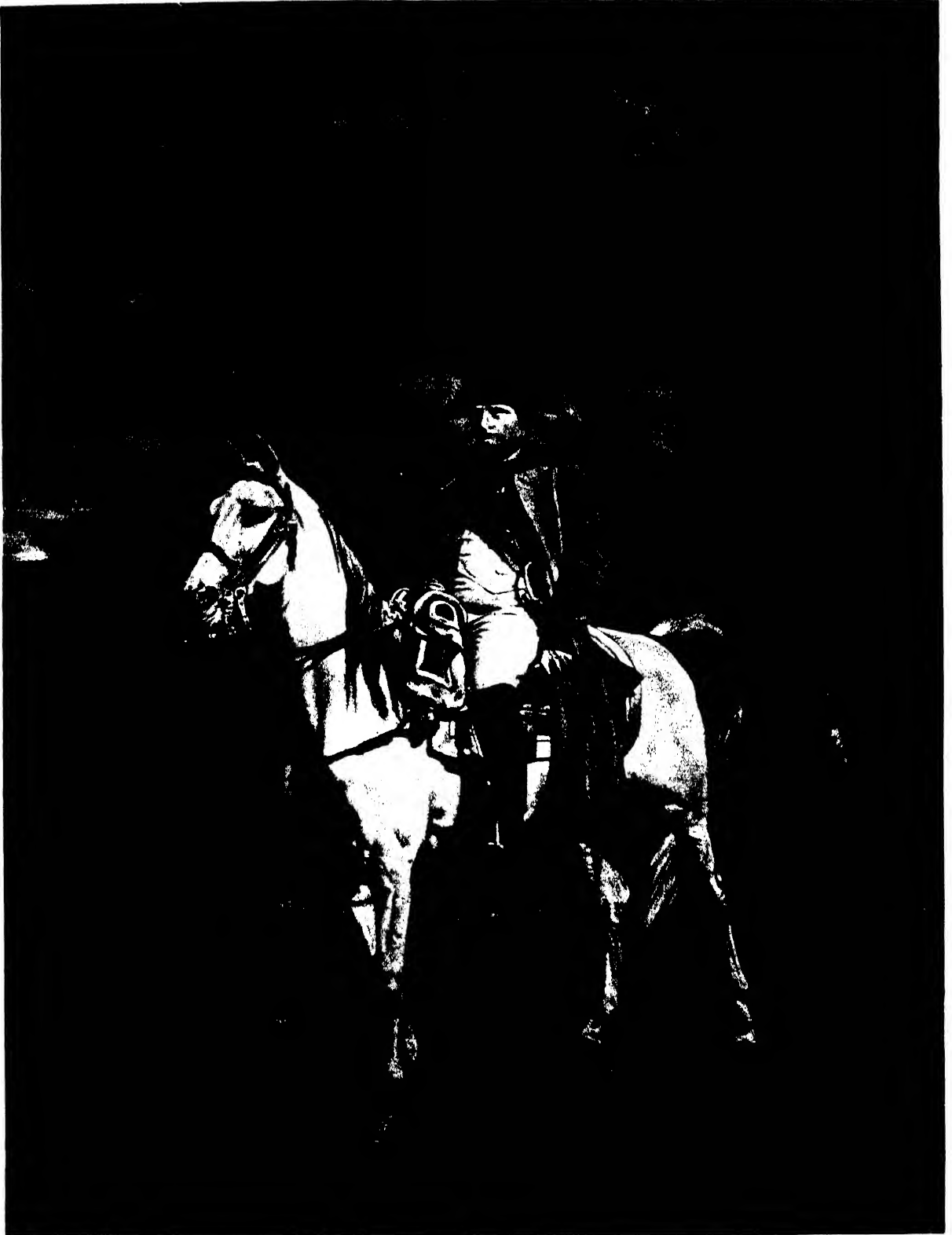
ENTRY OF NAPOLEON INTO BERLIN.

[Ch. Meynier.

Following his victories at Jena and Austerlitz, Napoleon entered Berlin on the 27th of October, 1806. He plundered the museums and galleries and was grossly insulting to the royal family. His imagination seems to have been especially captivated by the sight of Frederick the Great's sword, which he is said to have buckled on.

the cause of the outbreak of hostilities between England and France in 1793. On his side Napoleon declared that England's refusal to evacuate Malta constituted a breach of the peace, and put her in the wrong. He also pointed out that the evacuation of Holland had not been mentioned in the terms of the Treaty of Amiens. On the other hand, the English government declared that by a clause in the Treaty of Lunéville Napoleon had undertaken to evacuate Holland as soon as peace with England was concluded.

The year after England's declaration of war Napoleon caused himself to be made Emperor, and on December 2nd, 1804, he was crowned at Notre Dame. Meanwhile he had collected two thousand large flat-bottomed boats to carry one hundred and twenty thousand troops across to Kent, and a camp at Boulogne had been formed. The possible danger to England brought Pitt back to power in May, 1804, reinvigorated the Volunteer movement and caused an increase in the regular army. In December, 1804, Spain declared war against Great Britain, and a combined French and Spanish fleet, under



From the painting by Meissonier.]

[Photo by Brown et Cie.]

NAPOLEON, 1807.

In this picture Meissonier has depicted the Great Napoleon, at the age of thirty-eight, on his famous Arab charger, and at the zenith of his power. During the eight years that were left to him as Emperor, he persistently pursued a policy of aggression, and he gained some victories, but they proved of no substantial value to him. The year 1807 was remarkable for his victories over the Russians and Prussians at Eylau and Friedland. His disastrous expedition to Russia five years later was followed in 1813 by his defeat at the battle of Leipzig, which prepared the way for the final catastrophe at Waterloo.



Painted by]

THE BATTLE OF FRIEDLAND, 1807

[J. L. E. Meissner,

Having recovered from the great battle of Eylau (8th February), Napoleon, with an army of two hundred thousand men, met and defeated the Russians on the 14th of June at Friedland. The Russians, however, retreated in good order and without loss of baggage or artillery. The battle finished the campaign, as both Napoleon and Alexander were anxious for peace.

Villeneuve, was ordered to cover the transport of the army into England. Villeneuve, however, failed to carry out his orders, being intercepted on July 2nd, 1805, by Calder and a British fleet. He then retired to Ferrol and thence to Cadiz. Napoleon's plan for the invasion of England had thus entirely failed. During these months the third Coalition was gradually being formed, mainly owing to Pitt's exertions. In April, 1805, an Anglo-Russian convention was made. Prussia, as usual, continued neutral, and all that remained was to secure the help of Austria, who, though alienated from Napoleon by his conduct in Italy, was only finally induced to join the Coalition by Pitt's threat of suspending the subsidy which the English government paid to the government of Vienna.

At this juncture Napoleon removed all his troops from the camp at Boulogne and made a rapid march on the Danube. Mack having capitulated at Ulm, the Austrians were forced back behind Vienna, and Napoleon won a crowning victory over the Austrians in December, 1805, at Austerlitz, an event which brought about the complete submission of Prussia. The only disaster of this campaign which Napoleon experienced was the defeat of the French and Spanish squadron in the battle of Trafalgar on October 21st, 1805.

In the first six months of 1806 a complete revolution was effected in Germany, the Holy Roman Empire came to an end, and the Confederation of the Rhine, consisting of all the middle powers of Germany, was set up, dependent on France. With the end of the Holy Roman Empire Austrian ascendancy in Europe was permanently overthrown, to make way in due time for the present ascendancy of Prussia in Germany. Although Russia was still in arms, Napoleon did not now believe that he had any serious opposition in Europe to fear, and he therefore returned to his favourite plan of founding a French empire in the East, for which French ascendancy in the Mediterranean was necessary. Fox and the Whigs being in office, Napoleon hoped by their connivance to obtain Sicily, and supremacy in the Mediterranean. While he was negotiating with the Whigs, to whom he offered Hanover, which he had already given to Prussia, he was astonished to find that the Prussian government was arming. He was thus compelled to undertake the conquest of Prussia, which he effected by the battles of Jena and Auerstädt in October, 1806. Supreme in Berlin, all that remained for the success of his plans was to

overcome Great Britain and Russia. The former he attacked by the Berlin Decree of November, 1806, according to which the British Isles were declared in a state of blockade, British goods and letters were to be seized, neutral vessels which had touched at a British port were to be lawful prizes, and all Englishmen found in France and her dependent states were to be prisoners. Meanwhile, Napoleon, after the battle of Jena, concentrated his main efforts on the war with Russia, and after a fierce campaign the Tsar agreed to the Treaty of Tilsit, by which the Third Coalition was entirely shattered, and Alexander having little interest in prolonged resistance, seemed inclined to share Europe with Napoleon.

Up to the Treaty of Tilsit, Napoleon's career had greatly benefited Europe. Germany required complete reorganization, and Italy never forgot that with the Napoleonic invasion she had been given hopes of an existence as an independent power. France was now weary of war and required peace. There was, therefore, much to be said in favour of the adoption by Napoleon of a peaceful policy. Instead, however, of adopting this course, Napoleon determined, by means of his Continental System, to reduce England, and to form a dynastic kingdom in Spain. That being accomplished, he would have full control over the Mediterranean. From this time, however, his empire began to weaken. The leakage of the Secret Articles of Tilsit, which indicated that with the help of Denmark Napoleon proposed to control the Baltic, led Canning to bombard Copenhagen and seize the Danish fleet. Napoleon's outcry reads curiously when we remember that at the same moment he was sending an army under Junot to Portugal, to force upon that country the Berlin Decree. The Portuguese government appealed to England, and the royal family fled to Brazil. English troops landed in Portugal, and the Peninsular War began.

Napoleon had now made the greatest mistake of his life. The Conference of Bayonne, followed by the abdication of Charles IV. and Ferdinand, and the accession of Joseph Bonaparte, were meant as



Painted by Baron Antoine Jean Gros.

[Photo by Photuchrom Co. Ltd., London.]

NAPOLEON AT THE BATTLE OF EYLAU.

By taking the field in January, 1807, the Russian General Bennigsen forced Napoleon to resume operations in the middle of winter. The great battle of Eylau was fought on February 8th and proved one of the most stubborn contests of Napoleon's career. The French were everywhere repulsed, and the losses on either side were terrible, thirty thousand French to twenty thousand Russians being killed.

the first steps towards the rehabilitation of Spain. To Napoleon's astonishment the Spaniards refused to accept the new king, whose appearance in Madrid was followed by the spontaneous rising of the nation in arms. For the first time, Napoleon had come face to face with a religious uprising. The Spaniards were largely influenced by their priests, who dreaded the introduction into Spain of the ideas of Jacobinism. In July, 1808, a Spanish force overthrew a small French army, while Wellington beat back Junot's attack on the heights of Vimiera, and on August 30th, by the Convention of Cintra, twenty-five thousand French troops were conveyed to France in British ships. This unexpected blow to his armies decided Napoleon to make a great effort to carry out his Spanish policy. At the close of the year 1808 Napoleon visited Spain and entered Madrid; but Sir John Moore's campaign drew him to the north of Portugal, and while there he heard of the rising of Austria. He therefore, at the end of January, 1809, returned to France, leaving Soult to be defeated at the battle of Corunna.

Convinced, however, that the opposition of Spain could easily be suppressed, Napoleon with full



Painted by Delacroix.

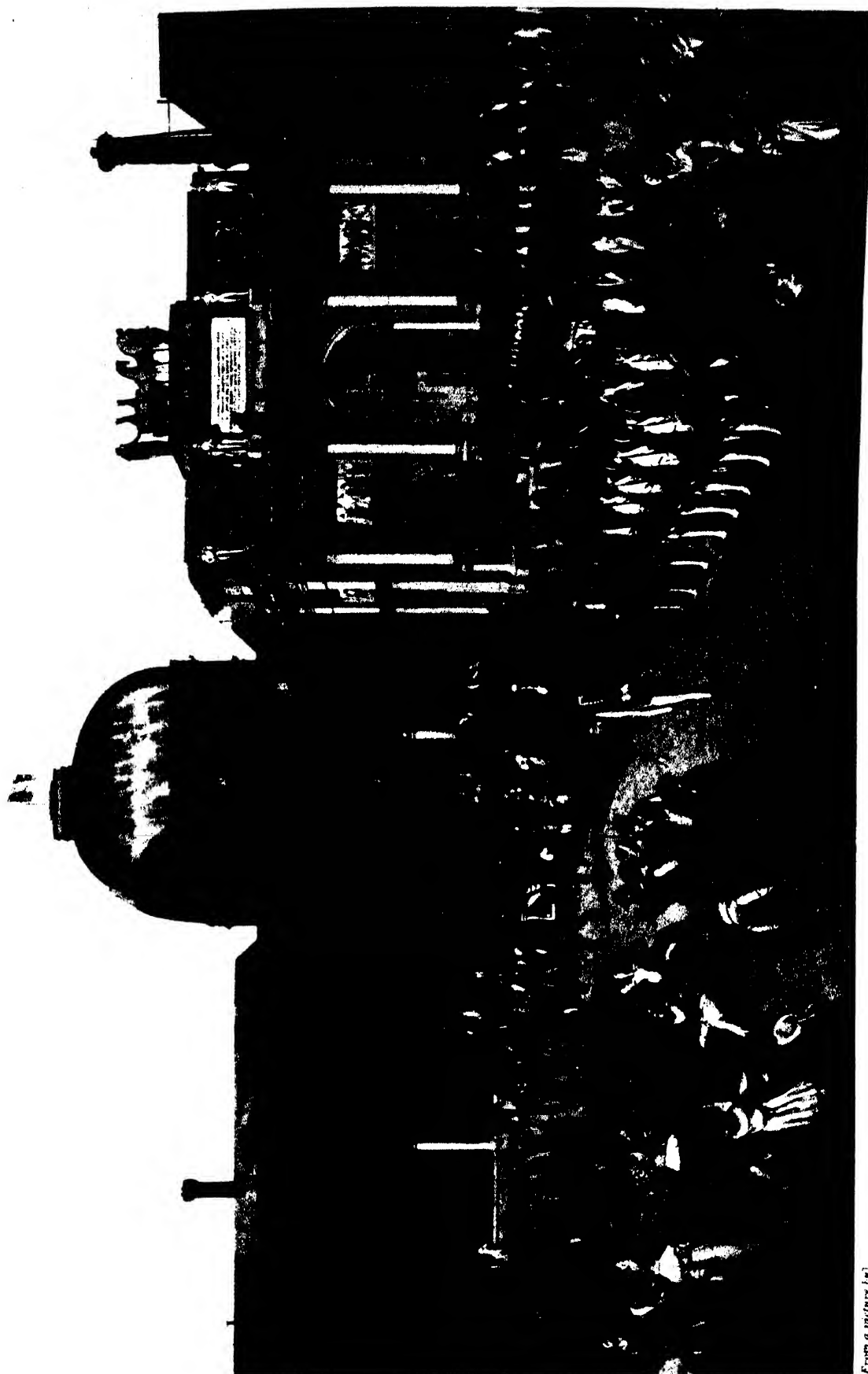
MASSÉNA AT THE BATTLE OF WAGRAM, 1809.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

The battle was fought on the 5th and 6th of July in the plain of Wagram to the north of the Danube. The carnage was fearful, and Napoleon's army suffered as great a loss in men as the defeated Austrians, under the Archduke Charles. Masséna, who commanded a corps, was Napoleon's greatest general, and he is said to have been of Jewish origin.

confidence set out upon his campaign in Austria. The Austrian resistance proved more severe than he anticipated, but after the battle of Wagram Francis Joseph agreed to the Treaty of Vienna. Austria was once more powerless, mainly because her efforts had been premature. Napoleon now regarded his position in Europe as firmly established. But, as a matter of fact, the Napoleonic system in Europe simply hinged on the Tilsit arrangements and the co-operation of Russia. From the beginning of 1810 the links which bound him to Russia became weaker. His marriage with the Austrian princess, Marie Louise, alienated the Russian Court, as he had made overtures for the hand of the Tsar's sister; his attitude on the Polish question and his creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw were also irritating to the Russian government, while the strain of the Berlin Decrees was proving too severe for the Russian people. It is not surprising, then, that on December 31st, 1810, the Tsar should have issued an edict modifying his adhesion to the Continental System. From that day Napoleon began his preparations for war with Russia.

The year 1811 was a critical year for Great Britain, for the Continental System was still at its height, in spite of the slight relaxation provided by Alexander's decision to modify it, as far as Russia was



From a picture by

A REVIEW DAY UNDER THE EMPIRE, 1810.

When Napoleon was not fighting he was fond of parading his troops on review before the people. The scene shown above is in Paris; the large building at the back of the picture with the tri-colour flying from the roof is the Palace of the Tuilleries, which was destroyed in 1871 by the Communists. The Emperor on his favourite white charger is passing in front of the doorway of the Palace, while at the window above stands the Empress Marie Louise. In the foreground of the picture the famous Imperial Guard is advancing to the step of martial music, while an enthusiastic crowd awaits the arrival of the Emperor.

[Belangé.]



Painted by]

[G. E. B. Girardet.

THE WEDDING PROCESSION OF NAPOLEON I. AND MARIE LOUISE, 1810.

Napoleon's marriage with the Archduchess Maria Louisa of Austria was celebrated in the chapel of the Tuileries at Paris on April 2nd, 1810. The match did not, however, commend itself to the people, who preferred the more democratic union with Josephine Beauharnais. A prince was born on the 20th of April, 1811, who received the title of King of Rome, and it was hoped the event might give permanence to Napoleon's dynasty.

concerned. "That year," says Dr. Rose, "must be regarded as the crisis in the commercial struggle" between Napoleon and Great Britain. Napoleon was determined to force Russia to return to its full adhesion to the Continental System, and the year 1812 saw the famous Moscow expedition and its failure. Prussia joined Russia at the beginning of 1813, and in the ensuing campaign Napoleon won the battles of Lützen and Bautzen.

At this point he made a colossal blunder, for instead of pushing on his advantage, he agreed, on June 4th, to the Armistice of Pleswitz, which continued till August 9th. During that period Wellington won the battle of Vittoria, and continued his advance into France, while Austria decided to throw in its lot with Russia, Prussia, and England. Between August 10th and the battle of Leipzig Napoleon's imperial system crumbled away, and early in 1814 the Allies found themselves in France. The campaign that ensued was one of the most remarkable in Napoleon's career as an illustration of his military genius. Taking full advantage of the separation of the invading forces by wide intervals, he made several successful attacks on the Prussians and Russians, and at one time drove the Austrians in disorder beyond Troyes. Castlereagh's arrival at the allied headquarters, however, prevented the disruption of the Coalition, and on March 20th Napoleon was decisively beaten in the battle of Arcis-sur-Aube. After that battle Austria cast aside all hesitation and decided on an immediate march to Paris. That decision was come to owing to a letter which fell into the hands of the Allies. In that letter Napoleon showed that he did not intend to be bound by any promises which he might make. On March 31st the Allies entered Paris, and on April 13th Napoleon accepted the terms which were offered to him—retirement to the island of Elba, and the cession of Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla to his wife. On May 3rd Louis XVIII. entered Paris, and on May 30th the First Treaty of Paris settled the future frontiers of France.

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY

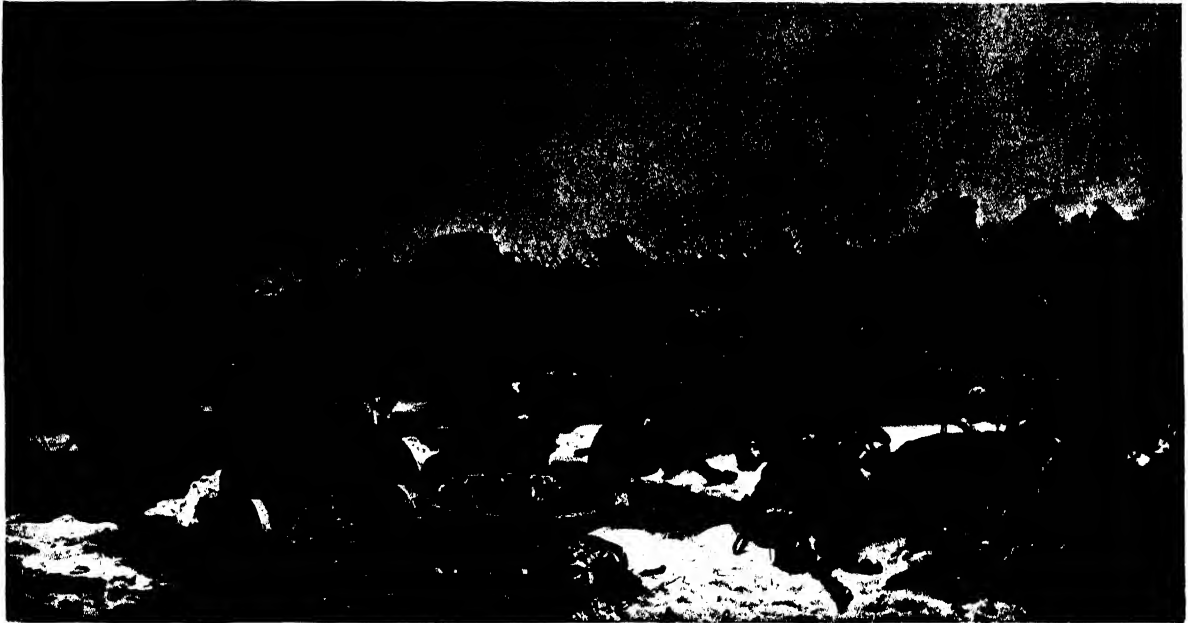
(1715-1914)

PERIOD	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Accession of Louis XV. to the Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle.	1715	Accession of Louis XV. under the regency of the Duke of Orleans.
	1722	Coronation of Louis. Cardinal Dubois made Chief Minister.
	1723	Death of the Regent and Cardinal Dubois. Duke of Bourbon becomes Chief Minister.
	1726	Fleury, Bishop of Fréjus, becomes Chief Minister.
	1734	Marshal Villars and the Duke of Savoy lay siege to Milan. Death of Villars at Turin. The Duke of Berwick is killed at Philippsburg.
	1740	Invasion of Silesia by Frederick the Great.
	1741	The War of the Austrian Succession. France joins Prussia and the French invade Bohemia. Prague is captured.
	1742	Frederick II. makes peace with Maria Theresa and the French are obliged to retreat from Prague.
	1744	Renewal of the Silesian War.
	1745	English and Dutch defeated at the Battle of Fontenoy. The English capture Louisburg and Cape Breton from the French.
	1747	Great victory of the English over the French fleet off Belle-Île.
Defeat of Dupleix at Arcot to the death of Louis XV.	1751	The plans of Dupleix and his Indian allies are defeated by Clive's defence of Arcot.
	1754	Dupleix recalled from India. George Washington opposes the French in America.
	1756	Admiral Byng defeated by the French fleet. France joins Austria in the Treaty of Versailles against Frederick the Great.
	1757	Surrender of Cumberland to Richelieu at Closter-Seven.
	1758	Defeat of Clermont by Ferdinand of Brunswick at Crefeld. Victories of Soubise at Sondershausen and Lützelberg. Capture of Cherbourg by the English.
	1759	Evacuation of Hanover and Hesse by the French. Defeat of Admiral Coudras by Hawke in Quiberon Bay and destruction of the French fleet. Defeat of the French by General Wolfe on the Heights of Abraham at Quebec, Canada.
	1761	Surrender of Pondicherry, the last French stronghold in India.
	1762	Surrender of Martinique to the English fleet.
	1763	The Peace of Paris ends the Seven Years' War.
	1768	France acquires Corsica.
	1769	Birth of Napoleon Bonaparte in Corsica.
	1770	Marriage of the Dauphin and Marie Antoinette of Austria.
	1771	The Parliaments of France suppressed. Provincial parliaments reconstructed.
Accession of Louis XVI. to the meeting of the States-General.	1774	Death of Louis XV. and accession of his grandson, Louis XVI. Restoration of the Parliament of Paris.
	1778	Outbreak of war between England and France. Dominica seized by the French and St. Lucia by the English in the West Indies.
	1779	Capture of St. Vincent and Grenada by the French. Senegal and Gorée in Africa seized by the English. Spanish attack on Gibraltar.
	1780	Defeat of the Spanish fleet by Rodney.
	1782	Defeat of the French fleet under Grasse by Rodney between Dominica and Guadaloupe.
	1787	Death of Vergennes. Assembly of the Notables. Calonne's plan of reform rejected. Cardinal de Brienne takes his place and urges Calonne's proposals. The King exiles the Paris parliament to Troyes for stating that the States-General alone may impose taxes.
	1788	Lettres de Cachet declared illegal. Second Assembly of the Notables.
	1789	Election to the States-General. Demands for thoroughgoing reforms presented. The National Assembly. The Oath of the Tennis Court. The Constituent Assembly. Fall of the Bastille on July 14th. Emigration of nobles. Abolition of privileges and Declaration of the Rights of Man. The State seizes Church property.
From the meeting of the States-General to the execution of Louis XVI.	1791	Death of Mirabeau. The constitution is completed.
	1792	War declared against Austria (April 20); Prussia joins Austria in July. The populace of Paris attacks the Tuilleries (August 10). The King is taken to the Temple Prison. Capture of Longwy and Verdun by Prussians, but they are defeated by Kellermann at Valmy. Convention vote the abolition of Royalty.
The Republic to the Consulate.	1793	Execution of Louis XVI. War declared against England, Spain and Holland. Defeat of Dumouriez and evacuation of Belgium. Girondists overthrown. Committee of Public Safety established. Reign of Terror. Assassination of Marat by Charlotte Corday. The English capture Toulon. Execution of Marie Antoinette and the Duke of Orleans. Worship of the Goddess of Reason. Napoleon first distinguishes himself at the siege of Toulon.
	1794	Capture of Martinique and Guadaloupe by the English. Robespierre in power. Hébert, Danton and Desmoulins guillotined. Masséna defeats the Piedmontese. Admiral Villaret-Joyeuse defeated by Lord Howe. Fall and execution of Robespierre and his followers. Re-establishment of the Committee of Public Safety. Reign of Terror ends. Invasion of Holland.
	1795	Pichegru takes Amsterdam, and the conquest of Holland is completed. Holland becomes the Batavian Republic and an ally of France. Death of Louis XVII. in the Temple. English fleet with a party of émigrés are defeated in Quiberon Bay by Hoche. Establishment of the Directory in power.
	1796	Napoleon becomes commander-in-chief of the army in Italy. Marriage with Josephine Bonaparte. French enter Milan. The Austrians are driven into the Tyrol. Nelson takes Elba.
	1797	Reaction in favour of the Royalists. The Directory with the aid of Angereau and his troops regains its ascendancy. Treaty of Campo-Fornio, by which Austria receives Venice and France the Ionian Islands and the right bank of the Rhine.
	1798	General Berthier sets up a Roman Republic after expelling the Pope. Napoleon captures Malta and Alexandria, and defeats Murad Bey at the Battle of the Pyramids, and then enters Cairo. French fleet destroyed by Nelson at the Battle of the Nile.
The Consulate to the Empire.	1799	War of the Second Coalition. Napoleon captures Gaza and Jaffa. Expulsion of the French from Italy. Napoleon returns to Egypt, and subsequently leaves for France. Suppression of the Directory. Napoleon becomes First Consul. Establishment of Council of State, Tribunal and Senate.
	1800	Kléber prepares to evacuate Egypt, but after defeating the Turks re-establishes French rule. Masséna surrenders Genoa. Kléber assassinated in Egypt. Battles of Marengo and Hohenlinden.
	1801	Treaty of Lunéville. The re-establishment of the Armed Neutrality.
	1802	The Peace of Amiens with England. Annexation of Piedmont by France.
	1803	War declared by England. Capture of St. Lucia, St. Pierre, Tobago and Miquelon by the English.
The Empire to the marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa of Austria.	1804	Code Napoléon. Napoleon proclaimed Emperor, May 18th.
	1805	Napoleon crowned King of Italy at Milan. The Third Coalition. Surrender of Ulm to Ney. Victory of Nelson at Trafalgar. Napoleon victorious at Austerlitz. Treaty of Pressburg.
	1806	Joseph Bonaparte becomes King of Naples and Louis Bonaparte King of Holland. The Confederation of the Rhine. End of the Holy Roman Empire. Prussians defeated by Napoleon at Auerstädt and Jena. Napoleon enters Berlin.
	1807	Victories of Napoleon over the Russians at Eylau and Friedland. The Treaty of Tilsit. Hesse Cassel and neighbouring provinces formed into the Kingdom of Westphalia for Jerome Bonaparte. Russia invades Portugal. The Peninsular War.

DATES OF FRENCH HISTORY—*continued*

PERIOD.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1808	Murat invades Spain. Royal family resign their rights to Napoleon, and Joseph Bonaparte is made King of Spain. Murat becomes King of Naples. Capture of French fleet off Cadiz by Collingwood. French defeated at Baylen and Saragossa. Victory of Wellesley at Vimiera. Victories of Napoleon in Spain.
	1809	English defeat Soult at Corunna. Great victory of Napoleon over the Austrians at Wagram. English and Spanish defeat Soult at Talavera.
Marriage of Napoleon with Maria Louisa of Austria to his abdication.	1810	Marriage of Napoleon with the Archduchess Marie Louise of Austria. Holland added to the French Empire. Defeat of Masséna by Wellington at Bussaco. Capture of Ciudad Rodrigo by Ney.
	1811	Defeat of Masséna by Wellington at Fuentes de Oñoro and capture of Almeida. Soult defeated at Albuera.
	1812	Recapture of Badajoz by Wellington, and victory at Salamanca. Victories of Napoleon at Smolensk and Borodino. Disastrous retreat from Moscow. Battle of Malojarslavetz and crossing of the Beresina with huge losses.
	1813	Victories of Napoleon over the Russians and Prussians. Victory of Wellington at Vittoria. Austria declares war on France. Napoleon defeated at the great battle of Leipzig.
	1814	Defeat of Soult at Orthez. The Allies in Paris. Napoleon deposed. He retires to Elba. Louis XVIII. elected King. Soult defeated at Toulouse. End of Peninsular War.
Deposition of Napoleon to the Second Republic.	1815	Napoleon's return to Paris and flight of Louis XVIII. Defeat of Ney at Quatre Bras, June 16th. Napoleon defeated by the Allies at Waterloo on June 18th. Capture of Paris. Restoration of Louis XVIII. Exile of Napoleon I. to St. Helena.
	1821	Death of Napoleon at St. Helena.
	1824	Death of Louis XVIII. Charles X. becomes King.
	1827	The Turks, under Ibrahim, defeated by the allied fleets of England, France and Russia at the naval Battle of Navarino.
	1830	Revolution, and abdication of Charles. Parisians elect Louis Philippe. Great liberal movement. Capture of Algiers.
The Second Republic to the Restoration of the Empire.	1840	Funeral of Napoleon I. in Paris. The Powers intervene in Egypt. Bonapartist plot.
	1841	Queen Victoria visits the King.
	1847	Surrender of Abdul-Kadir.
	1848	Abdication of Louis Philippe. Second Republic established. Louis Napoleon becomes President. New Constitution. Death of Chateaubriand.
	1852	Louis Napoleon proclaimed Emperor as Napoleon III.
Restoration of the Empire to the Third Republic.	1854	Crimean War. England and France make war on Russia owing to her threatening attitude towards Turkey. Battle of the Alma. Siege of Sebastopol. Battles of Balaklava and Inkerman.
	1855	Storming of the Malakoff by the French. Allies enter Sebastopol. Visit of the Emperor and Empress to London. Queen Victoria visits Paris.
	1856	End of Crimean War and Peace of Paris.
	1858	Treaty of Tientsin follows Anglo-French Expedition. Chinese ports opened.
	1859	War of France and Sardinia against Austria. Victories at Magenta and Solferino. Treaty of Villafranca.
	1860	Savoy and Nice ceded to France. French and English forces land at Shanghai.
	1861	War with Mexico to enforce treaty obligations.
	1862	French victories in Cochin China. Six provinces are ceded.
	1869	Opening of the Suez Canal, engineered by Ferdinand de Lesseps.
	1870	War declared against Germany. The French under MacMahon defeated at Worth, Gravelotte and St. Privat. Surrender of the French army with Napoleon III. at Sedan. Napoleon deposed by proclamation of Gambetta and others.
		Establishment of the Third Republic. Provisional "Government of Defence." Siege of Paris. Strassburg and Metz capitulate. Battle of Orléans. Paris bombarded.
	1871	Battle of Le Mans. Sortie from Paris by 100,000 men under Trochu. Battle of St. Quentin. Capitulation of Paris. Thiers elected chief of executive by National Assembly. Peace of Versailles negotiated with Bismarck. Alsace and Lorraine ceded and indemnity of 5,000,000,000 francs paid. Peace signed at Frankfurt. Insurrection in Paris. Commune proclaimed. MacMahon's army enters Paris. Thiers becomes President. Life sentence on Rochefort.
	1873	Death of Napoleon III. Thiers resigns and MacMahon becomes President. Anglo-French treaty of 1860 renewed. The septenniate established. Duke de Broglie becomes Premier.
	1874	Disputes of Bonapartists and Republicans. Efforts to establish the monarchy.
	1875	New Senate Act. The new constitution upheld by Gambetta.
	1876	Queen Victoria visits Paris.
	1880	Decree abolishing religious orders. Jules Ferry Premier.
	1881	Tunis becomes a protectorate. Gambetta becomes Premier.
	1882	Resignation of Gambetta. Compulsory education. Ultimatum to Egypt by England: France refuses to co-operate with England in Egypt.
The Third Republic to the declaration of war by Germany.	1883	Tongking and Annam become protectorates.
	1884	Industrial crisis. Trade unions legalized.
	1886	Bourbon and Bonapartist families expelled. Secular education.
	1887	Bourbon and Bonapartist manifesto. Carnot becomes President.
	1889	League of Patriots suppressed. Boulanger sentenced to deportation.
	1890	French protectorate of Madagascar. Church declares loyalty to the Republic.
	1891	Empress Frederick visits Paris. Protectionist tariff. Suicide of Boulanger.
	1892	Declaration of submission to the Pope in matters of faith.
	1894	Increase of corn duty. Joan of Arc celebration. President Carnot assassinated.
	1895	Degradation of Dreyfus. Félix Faure President.
	1896	Visit of Queen Victoria to the President.
	1897	Franco-Russian alliance.
	1898	Esterhazy tried and acquitted of treason. Zola sentenced for defamation. Marchand, on his expedition to the Nile, reaches Fashoda and meets Kitchener. Niger convention. Admission of forgery in the Dreyfus case by Lieut.-Col. Henry.
	1899	Dreyfus re-tried, found guilty, but pardoned. Madame Curie discovers radium.
	1901	The Association Bill designed to check education by religious orders. The Tsar visits France. Trouble with the Porte. Disturbances in Algeria.
	1902	Loubet visits Russia. Decrees against religious communities.
	1903	King Edward VII. visits Paris. Arbitration treaties with England and Italy.
	1904	Agreement with England. Prohibition against teaching by religious orders.
	1905	Disagreement with Germany about Morocco. Church and State separated by law.
	1906	Clement Fallières elected President. Algeciras Conference over Morocco.
	1907	Trouble in Morocco. Dreyfus reinstated.
	1908	Bill for devolution of Church property. Fallières meets the Tsar at Reval.
	1909	Moroccan agreement with Germany signed in Berlin. Clemenceau ministry resigns on adverse naval vote.
	1910	Adoption of Old Age Pensions Bill by Chamber of Deputies. Great strike of railway workers.
	1911	Ministry of M. Caillaux.
	1912	Conference between MM. Caillaux, Clémenceau, and De Silves.
	1913	Barthou Ministry.
	1914	Murder of M. Gaston Calmette, editor of the <i>Figaro</i> , by Mme. Caillaux. She is tried and acquitted. War declared against France by Germany.

After the Tsar, the King of Prussia, Blucher, and others, had visited London and Oxford in June, they, with the Emperor of Austria and Castlereagh, assembled at Vienna in the autumn. That famous Congress—for the First Treaty of Paris, drawn up in May, had settled the future of France—was concerned with the rearrangement of Europe. Over the question of the future of Saxony the Allies differed, Austria, England, and France opposing the proposals of Russia and Prussia. Finally the Saxon question was settled early in 1815, but before the Congress had broken up, news came that Napoleon had escaped from Elba and had landed in France early in March. The period known as The Hundred Days followed, for Napoleon was fully aware that his return to Paris would be opposed by the Powers. He advanced in May towards the Belgian frontier and won the battle of Ligny. But his troops were checked in the battle of Quatre Bras, and on June 18th he was defeated in the battle of Waterloo. His second abdication followed, and on October 17th he landed, a prisoner, in St. Helena, where he died on May 5th, 1821. His overthrow was followed by the restoration of Louis XVIII. to the French throne.



Painted up]

[J. A. AKHIMOVSKI.

THE BADEN BRIGADE RETREATING ACROSS THE BERESINA, 1812.

The crossing by the Baden brigade over the upper bridge during the night of 28-29 November was a scene of horror and misery unparalleled even during the Russian campaign of 1812. A large gathering of Russian non-combatants beside the Beresina river suffered terribly; even women and children were murdered, trodden down and forced helplessly into the river.

THE RECOVERY OF FRANCE, 1815-1856

FROM the overthrow of Napoleon to the Crimean War Russia was the most predominant state in Europe, and, curiously enough, France was one of the two states which took a leading part in combating her overweening pretensions.

After the final downfall of Napoleon, it was Alexander who was most interested in securing the reconciliation of Liberal sentiment with the monarchy in France and in checking the tide of reaction. At first there seemed no difficulty in bringing this about. Louis XVIII. and his wisest counsellors advocated a policy of moderation, and the appointment of the Duc de Richelieu as head of the ministry seemed likely to inaugurate a period of "enlightened royalism." The chief object of Richelieu's policy was as soon as possible to free France from the Army of Occupation, but this could only be accomplished when the powers were satisfied that the Government rested upon a stable foundation. The trial and execution of Ney, the expulsion of Carnot from the country, the attempt to make the Church an independent land-owning corporation, illustrate the character of the majority in that Assembly. That majority, headed by the Comte d'Artois, aimed at a complete return (as far as possible)

to the France before 1789, while the minority (the Bonapartists and Republicans taking no part in these debates), which included the ministry and represented the views of the king, desired to uphold "the social structure erected by the Revolution and guaranteed by the Charter." The majority endeavoured to secure the passing of an electoral law favourable to themselves, and threw out the Budget—a foolish blunder—for all the great powers were interested in its success. Louis then determined to appeal to the constituencies against the Ultra-Royalists. His success was followed by results of importance to France.

On December 20th, 1820, Richelieu resigned, being succeeded by a ministry under General Désolles, whose ministry showed liberal tendencies in the direction of the relaxation of the Press laws and the



Painted by]

MARSHAL MONCRY AT CLICHY, 1814.

[Horace Vernet,

The campaign which Napoleon was to enter upon was very different from what had passed. Fighting for foreign conquest gave place to the stern struggle for his existence as Emperor, for the allies had resolved, in the event of their success, to depose him. The incident depicted is that of Marshal Moncriu encouraging the defenders at the barrier of Clichy, a suburb of Paris, when the allies were at the gates of the city.

pardoning of some political exiles. It also reformed the Upper House in the interests of Moderate Liberalism. These measures, together with certain striking election results, caused Louis to take action in order to check the progress of the Liberal agitation in France.

Désolles, with two of his colleagues, thereupon retired, and Décazes became head of a government which was violently attacked by the Ultras, who accused him of stimulating revolution and Bonapartism. On February 13th, 1820, the murder of the Duc de Berri came to the assistance of the reactionaries, who accused Décazes of indirect responsibility for the crime. It was impossible for Louis to keep Décazes in office, and he accordingly summoned Richelieu to again become Prime Minister. Richelieu had a difficult part to play. The king, now growing old, made little resistance to the reactionaries; and Richelieu, finding himself unable to stem the progress of the Ultras, whose confidence was strengthened by the birth of the Duc de Bordeaux (the Comte de Chambord), the posthumous son of the late Duc de



From the painting)

NAPOLEON'S FAREWELL TO HIS GENERALS AT FONTAINEBLEAU, APRIL 20th, 1814.

Napoleon's legal reign terminated on April 11th, 1814, by his abdication, and his consent to withdraw to the island of Elba. Nine days later—on the 20th—he left Fontainebleau. But before his departure the Imperial Guard for the last time was drawn up for him in the White Court of the Palace—as if for a review. At twelve o'clock the Emperor appeared: a most affecting scene followed, and after addressing some touching words to the old Guard he took leave of them.

[By Horace Vernet]



From the painting]

[By Beaume.

NAPOLÉON'S DEPARTURE FROM ELBA ON HIS RETURN TO FRANCE, FEBRUARY 26th, 1815.

The restoration of the Bourbon line, in the person of Louis XVIII., after Napoleon's abdication, was the cause of much popular discontent; a large number of the French people still proved faithful to the Emperor. He therefore resolved to return to France, and on February 26th, 1815, he made his escape from Elba.

Berri, and by the death of Napoleon on May 5th, 1821, retired from office, being succeeded by Villèle, a strong supporter of the Legitimists. His accession to office was the beginning of a reaction which lasted till 1830. During his administration revolutions broke out in Naples, Portugal, and Spain, while the allied monarchs at Troppau, Laibach, and Verona, were busily concerned in measures for checking these movements.

The situation in Europe was further complicated by the outbreak of the revolution in Greece in 1821. Under Villèle France had definitely thrown in her lot with the reactionary powers, and in 1823 a French army marched to the aid of Ferdinand of Spain, and assisted in the suppression of the revolutionary movement in his kingdom. The opposition of the British Cabinet to French intervention in Spain took the form of recognition of the revolted Spanish colonies and of support of the royal power in Portugal.

During these years (1820-3) the triumph of the reaction in France had become an assured fact. The Electoral Law of 1820, followed by the Septennial Act of 1824, left the Liberal party in the French Assembly as powerless as was the Whig party in the English House of Commons. Moreover, the accession of Louis' brother, the Duc d'Artois, as Charles X. to the French throne on September 16th, 1824, strengthened the reactionary influences in France. Under him the *émigrés* were fully compensated, the influence of the Church was strengthened, and the interests of the *bourgeoisie*, though it held monarchist views, were flouted. Opposition to a government which openly favoured the Jesuits and silenced the Press was bound to make itself heard, and a period of unrest set in which lasted throughout Charles X.'s reign.

Charles X., in April, 1830, placed at the head of the government Polignac, who had been ambassador in London, but who was no statesman. His extreme royalist views were "the very incarnation of Clericalism." His appointment implied the overthrow of the arrangements under which the great powers had placed Louis XVIII. on the throne. What was of more immediate consequence, it was an open defiance to the will of France as expressed by her elected representatives. An expedition

sent to Algiers in May, though successful, did not add to the popularity of the government, and at the general election in May the Opposition was stronger than ever. Charles now, by the advice of his ministers, on July 25th issued the famous Four Ordinances. By them the liberty of the Press was suspended, the Chambers were dissolved, a new Assembly was summoned, and the franchise was changed. For some time a revolutionary movement among the working men and students had been in process of organization, and on July 27th, 28th and 29th, 1830, a revolution was accomplished.

Charles X. left the country, and on the suggestion of Thiers, it was decided to confer the Crown upon Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, who was prepared to rule constitutionally. Though Charles had bequeathed the Crown to his son Henry, Comte de Chambord, the cause of the Bourbons was lost, and the country willingly accepted the Orleanist prince. Louis Philippe's government never secured a very firm position, and in 1848 it was as easily overthrown as had been that of Charles X. The new French monarchy was not readily accepted by the Tsar Nicholas, who prepared, at any rate, to resist the revolution of the Belgians against their union with Holland. But the Polish Revolution, which broke out in November, 1830, fully occupied his attention, and England and France were left to support the movement in Belgium. Meanwhile Louis Philippe was strengthening himself in France.

For some nine years France was in close friendly relations with England, and these two powers, with Spain, formed a sort of Triple Alliance against the three Eastern autocratic powers—Russia, Prussia, and Austria. After the establishment of the kingdom of Belgium, the chief interest in European politics was centred in the East, where Mehemet Ali, Viceroy of Egypt, had not only established his independence of Turkey, but had sent his son Ibrahim with a large army to invade Syria. Ibrahim easily overran



Painted by]

[Charles Steuben.

NAPOLEON'S RETURN TO FRANCE AFTER HIS ESCAPE FROM ELBA.

After his flight from the island of Elba Napoleon landed in France on March 7th, 1815, and having met with an enthusiastic reception from the Army, he entered Paris on the 20th in the character of a liberator of the people from a tyranny imposed by a foreign influence.

the country, and entered Asia Minor. Turkey at this crisis accepted Russia's aid by the Convention of Kiutayeh on April 8th, 1833. Turkey was saved. Russia's future relations with Turkey were now defined in the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi on July 8th, 1833, and France and England, both closely connected politically and commercially with Turkey, found that their interests were seriously threatened. Moreover, Russia, Austria and Prussia agreed, by the Convention of Münchengratz, to watch carefully revolutionary movements in Western Europe, and to prepare for the possible collapse of the Ottoman Empire. Europe was thus seemingly divided into two hostile camps.

The situation was not, however, as serious as it seemed. On April 19th, 1839, England, Austria, France, Russia, and Prussia had willingly agreed to guarantee the independence and neutrality of Belgium, reaffirming a similar guarantee entered into on November 15th, 1831. Moreover, Nicholas was ready to enter into closer relations with England, his chief hostility being directed against France. Already there had appeared several rifts in the Anglo-French *entente*, and in 1839 an opportunity occurred for the realization of Nicholas' hope of better relations between his empire and England. For in April, 1839, war between Turkey and Mehemet Ali was renewed. At Nessib the Turkish army was overthrown by Ibrahim Pasha, and Constantinople was again threatened. All Europe was interested to prevent such a catastrophe



THE STORMING OF SAN SEBASTIAN, 1813.

The allies commenced the investment of the great fortress of San Sebastian in Spain within a short interval after the battle of Vittoria. In the storming of the ramparts of the citadel they sustained the heavy loss of four thousand men. The citadel was captured on August 31st, and the castle, which crowned the heights of Urgull, surrendered on September 9th.

as the downfall of Turkey, but while Nicholas gained England by letting the Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi lapse, France showed an anxiety to protect the interests of Mehemet. In 1840, without the knowledge of the French Government, Russia, England, Austria, and Prussia formed a Quadruple Alliance to protect the Sultan. Mehemet was coerced, and agreed to the evacuation of Syria. These events caused a war fever in France, and Thiers advocated hostile measures. Louis Philippe, however, had no wish for war against Europe; he dismissed Thiers, and Guizot formed a ministry. In one respect France was conciliated. By the Straits Convention, on July 1st, 1842, it was agreed that the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles should be closed to warships of all nations. These events had seriously weakened the Anglo-French friendship, and the government of Louis Philippe as well, though the government of Guizot and Soult, formed in October, 1840, was the first stable one since the fall of the Périer ministry in February, 1836, between which date and October, 1840, no less than five ministries had been in office.

Guizot, however, refused to undertake reforms, and under his ministry, which lasted till 1848, the government became openly reactionary. By his policy "the *entente cordiale*" of the Western powers, "the work of sixteen years of laborious diplomacy, collapsed like a pricked bubble."

In 1847 the proposals of reform which had been rejected in 1842 were again brought forward, and a series of "reform banquets" were held in order to affect public opinion outside Paris. The country



Painted by A. C. Goss.

AFTER WATERLOO. THE 18th OF JUNE. 1815.

The battle had raged all day, but about eight o'clock in the evening Napoleon's army suddenly broke up on all sides. The cry of "Sauve qui peut!" was heard at every turn, and men who at the beginning were numbered amongst the finest troops of France were seen streaming from the field, all bent on seeking their own safety. Though bleeding from a sabre slash which cut right through an epaulette, Ney had fought magnificently and often faced death. He tried hard to rally the men as they streamed past him, but they rushed on with a parting shout of "Long live Marshal Ney." Indeed every man had done his best, but the bitter cry of Napoleon, "All is lost!" filled the minds of all, and they could no longer face the struggle.

[Photo by R. P. C., London.]

was roused, and in 1848 Louis Philippe was faced with an opposition which had passed from the hands of the *bourgeois* element into those of the Republicans and Socialists. His speech from the throne on December 28th, 1847, showed no appreciation of the state of public feeling, and in the Chamber of Deputies the government triumphed, the debate on the Address continuing from January 17th to February 12th. On February 22nd and 23rd revolutionary movements took place in Paris. The king dismissed Guizot, but his new ministry, headed by Thiers and Odillon Barrot, decided that the troops should not fire on the mob. That decision sealed the fate of the monarchy. On February 25th Louis abdicated, appointing the Duchess of Orleans, the mother of the Comte de Paris, Regent. But the mob invaded the Chamber, and a provisional government was formed, with Lamartine at its head, the Republic was proclaimed, and it was decided that a National Convention, elected by universal suffrage, should be summoned. In Paris the Republicans were in reality opposed to the Socialists, but the latter



Painted by

NAPOLÉON ON BOARD THE "BELLEROPHON."

[Sir W. Q. Orchardson, R.A.]

It was Napoleon's hope, following his abdication, to sail for America, but all means of escape were cut off owing to the close watch of the British men-of-war. In a letter to the Prince Regent he surrendered himself to the English. He is seen in the "Bellerophon" on his way to Torbay to await the decision of the British Government.

for a time prevailed, and national workshops were established. Till April 16th, the Socialists carried out their wishes, but on that day the *bourgeois* guard drove the mob out of the Luxembourg, and the National Convention, with a majority of moderate men, confirmed the intention of the Provisional Government to establish order. The Assembly attempted to deal with the social question, and published on November 4th a Constitution by which a Legislature was to be chosen by universal suffrage, to sit for four years, and a President was also to be elected by universal suffrage for four years. December 10th was fixed as the day for the presidential election, and Louis Bonaparte, nephew of Napoleon and son of the former King of Holland, was a candidate.

The election of Louis Napoleon startled all Europe and caused general alarm in many of the monarchical courts. The revolution in France had been followed by revolutionary movements in Austria, Italy, Germany, and Hungary. Metternich fell, Charles Albert, King of Sardinia, headed a union of the Italian states against Austria, while in Berlin a revolution took place, and a German



MARSHAL SOULT, 1769-1851.

He rose from the ranks, and was with Napoleon in Italy, at Austerlitz and Waterloo. In Spain he held a prominent position, and Wellington found him a formidable enemy.

parliament was opened on May 18th, 1848. But slowly the revolutionists were crushed and the cause of monarchy prevailed.

The close of the revolutionary movements left Louis Napoleon and the Emperor Nicholas the two most conspicuous figures in Europe. The former, on December 1st, 1851, found himself strong enough to execute his famous *coup d'état*, followed on December 2nd, 1852, by his proclamation of the Empire. On February 14th, 1853, he was able to announce that he had been recognized by most of the European powers. Nicholas of Russia had, indeed, recognized Napoleon with limitations, but refused to accept his dynastic claims. This attitude of the Tsar bitterly offended Napoleon, and was



MARSHAL MASSÉNA, 1756-1817.

The greatest of Napoleon's Marshals, he was of humble Jewish origin. After a brilliant career, he went to the Peninsula, but was recalled with ignominy by Napoleon.

one cause of the opposition of France to Russia which contributed to the outbreak of the Crimean War.

As early as 1850 a dispute had arisen in the East over the question of the Holy Places, which implied a struggle between France and Russia for paramount influence in the East. While Napoleon was anxious for a war with Russia, the Tsar, on his part, especially after the Sultan had yielded to the French demands in 1852, was ready to combat Turkey and France allied, as he was convinced that the Turkish Empire was on the point of breaking up. In January, 1853, he had the famous conversations with Sir Hamilton Seymour, and described his plan for a partition of the Turkish Empire between Russia and England. A conference of the four Powers—England, France, Austria, and Prussia—at Vienna, in August, 1853, produced the "Vienna Note," which was nullified by Turkey's refusal to accept it without certain alterations. In October the allied English and French fleets entered the Dardanelles and the two countries declared war on March 27th, 1854.

The accession of the Tsar Alexander II. in March, 1855, led to negotiations which failed, and it was not till March 30th, 1856, that the Peace of Paris ended the Crimean war. With its conclusion



JOACHIM MURAT, 1771-1815.

Marshal and King of Naples. He served in Egypt and Italy, and took part in the greatest of Napoleon's battles. He was famed as a cavalry commander.



NICOLAS CHARLES OUDINOT, 1767-1847.

Marshal and Duke of Reggio. Famous as commander of grenadiers. Fought at Austerlitz, Ostrolenka, Friedland, Wagram, and in the retreat from Moscow.



DAVOUT, LOUIS NICOLAS, 1770-1823.

Marshal, Duke of Auerstädt and Prince of Eckmühl. Gained distinction in Egypt, at Austerlitz, Auerstädt, Eckmühl, Wagram, and in the Russian campaign.



MICHEL NEY, 1769-1815.

Marshal, Duke of Elchingen, Prince of Moscow. Served at Jena, Eylau and Friedland, through the Russian campaign of 1812, and at Quatre Bras and Waterloo.

Russia ceased to take the lead in Europe, a position she had held since 1815. From 1856 to 1870 France occupied that position, and was for several years the most prominent power in Europe.

THE SUPREMACY OF FRANCE, 1856-1870

AFTER the close of the Crimean War Napoleon's power and the high position held by France in Europe were undisputed. Apparently the peace of Europe depended solely on the will of the Emperor. Moreover, the Tsar and he were on the best of terms, while Austria, now alienated from Russia owing to her neutrality in the Crimean War, was practically isolated in Europe. Her isolation and the determination of Cavour brought on the next European crisis, which had most important results on the balance of power in Europe, and more especially on the future of France. The acceptance of Italian help in the Crimean War had led to the admission of Piedmont to the Congress of Paris. There Cavour was able to discuss the political condition of Italy, and to secure from Napoleon expressions of goodwill. But there were many reasons to explain Napoleon's hesitation in taking action on behalf of Piedmont against Austria, and of these one of the chief was connected with Rome. The Empress of the French and most of the French people were unfavourable to Cavour's policy of a united Italy, as it was in direct opposition to the cause of Rome. A close alliance with the Pope, too, formed one of the chief props of Napoleon's throne, and would, if continued, prove of value in securing that throne to the Prince Imperial. French troops were quartered in Rome to support the Pope, just as Europe was startled by the news that Orsini, an Italian refugee, had attempted to kill the Emperor in Paris. Two letters, written by Orsini before his execution, had a profound effect on Napoleon, who, instead of visiting his wrath upon Piedmont, agreed to meet Cavour on June 20th secretly at Plombières.

The meeting at Plombières makes it quite evident that Napoleon was no match for such a resolute diplomatist as was Cavour. At that meeting it was arranged that France and Italy united should attack Austria, and, having defeated her, should divide the spoils. But the two men had different ideas as to the chief result of a war with Austria. Napoleon "desired a free, but he had no wish for a united Italy." A Piedmont which extended to the Adriatic and the continuance of the *status quo* in Central and Southern Italy were apparently the objects of Napoleon, who at Plombières settled that France was to secure Savoy and Nice. After Plombières, his natural hesitation was seen when, on the one hand, he hinted to Hübner, on January 1st, 1859, that the relations between France and Austria



[Photo by]

[Lery Frères.

LOUIS XVIII., 1755-1824.

Louis succeeded to the throne on the abdication of Napoleon in 1814, but the latter's return from Elba and his reception by the French army forced Louis to go into retirement. Following Napoleon's overthrow at Waterloo he returned to Paris, and submitted to the indignity of receiving the crown at the hands of the allied armies.

Austrian troops were occupying the States of the Church. Moreover, there was an influential party in France which saw clearly the disadvantage to France from the erection of another military monarchy on Prussian lines behind the Alps. To keep Italy disunited had been for ages the policy of successive French rulers, and now both religious and military France were opposed to the realization of Cavour's hopes.

It was clear that the success of Cavour's policy must bring to an end the French occupation of Rome. Such a consideration had, however, no weight with the Italian minister, who, encouraged by Napoleon's words at the Congress of Paris, founded the *Société Nationale Italienne*, which drew attention to the wrongs of Italy and pressed forward the cause of Italian freedom. On January 14th, 1858,

were not entirely satisfactory, while, on the other, he not only, at the opening of the French Legislature, in February, 1859, declared *L'Empire, c'est la paix*, but also accepted Lord Palmerston's offer to negotiate with Austria. But Cavour had Napoleon in his power, and the former's war preparations led to an ultimatum from Austria on April 23rd, followed a few days later by a declaration of war by France. Success attended the operations in Italy, where the Austrians were overthrown in three battles—Montebello, Magenta, and Solferino, the last-named taking place on June 24th.

Alarmed, however, at the news that a Prussian army was moving towards the Rhine, Napoleon, on July 9th, agreed to an armistice at Villafranca, and in 1860 peace was formally made. The Italian States were to be formed into a Confederation presided over by the Pope; Sardinia received Lombardy, and as Piedmont had not been extended to the Adriatic as agreed upon at Plombières, the French Emperor forbore to take Savoy and Nice. On the day that he signed the armistice at Villafranca Napoleon was at the height of his power. He was apparently the most prominent, if not the most powerful man in Europe. He had carried out the idea for which he went to war. A power regarded as possessing great military strength had been signally defeated; the terms of peace had shown a creditable moderation. Villafranca, in truth, saw the Emperor at the height of his influence. But it also saw the beginning of his fall, for, in the words of M. de la Gorce, "in Italy the fate of the Second Empire was sealed." For in entering the war Napoleon had roused the distrust of Europe, while in agreeing to the armistice of Villafranca he had completely estranged his ally. Italy, now alienated by the conduct of Napoleon, ignored the conditions laid down at Villafranca, and the Central States threw in their lot with Piedmont. Napoleon had either to enter into a campaign against Piedmont, or stand by and watch his late allies tear up the Treaty of Villafranca. As a set-off to the new gains of Piedmont, he carried out the annexation of Savoy and Nice, an act that lost him the good will of the English nation and the confidence of the English Cabinet.

In 1860 the invasion of Sicily by Garibaldi raised a new issue. Should not the French fleet, then at Gaeta, prevent Garibaldi from crossing to Naples?



[Photo by]

LOUIS XVIII. OPENING THE CHAMBERS, 1814.

[Lery Freres.]

The Chambers were opened by Louis on the 4th of June, but his manner in introducing the new Charter, which dealt with the election of peers, elections to the Chamber of Deputies and the electoral suffrage, was considered very injudicious.



[Photo by]

THE DUKE OF ORLEANS AND THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES, 1830.

[Lery Freres.]

At the abdication of Charles X. France repudiated the principle that kings rule by Divine right. Louis Philippe was well known to favour a more liberal spirit, and on assuming office he announced his intention of making the Charter a reality. He is seen receiving the act which called him to the throne.

But the English ministry, represented by Lord John Russell, persuaded Napoleon to let Italy settle its own affairs; and before many months were over the Romagna was occupied by the Piedmontese troops; while after the battle of Castelfidardo, the Pope, "notwithstanding the presence of a French army in Rome, found himself stripped of his richest provinces." The Union of Italy was now practically complete. M. de Persigny, who had to some extent foreseen the result of the Emperor's inaction, thus describes his policy: "He intended to prevent the Union of Italy, and Italian unity is now accomplished; he proposed to protect the Papacy, and the Holy See has lost its richest possessions. In the eyes of all Europe his government is covered with disgrace." Thus diplomatic disaster had followed the French victories on the battle-field, and public opinion in France naturally resented this fact. Catholic France was incensed at the spoliation of the Pope, while military and naval France resented the defeat of Lamoricière at Castelfidardo, and the enforced inaction of the French fleet while the king of Naples was being driven from his kingdom. In France itself the Emperor's position was sensibly

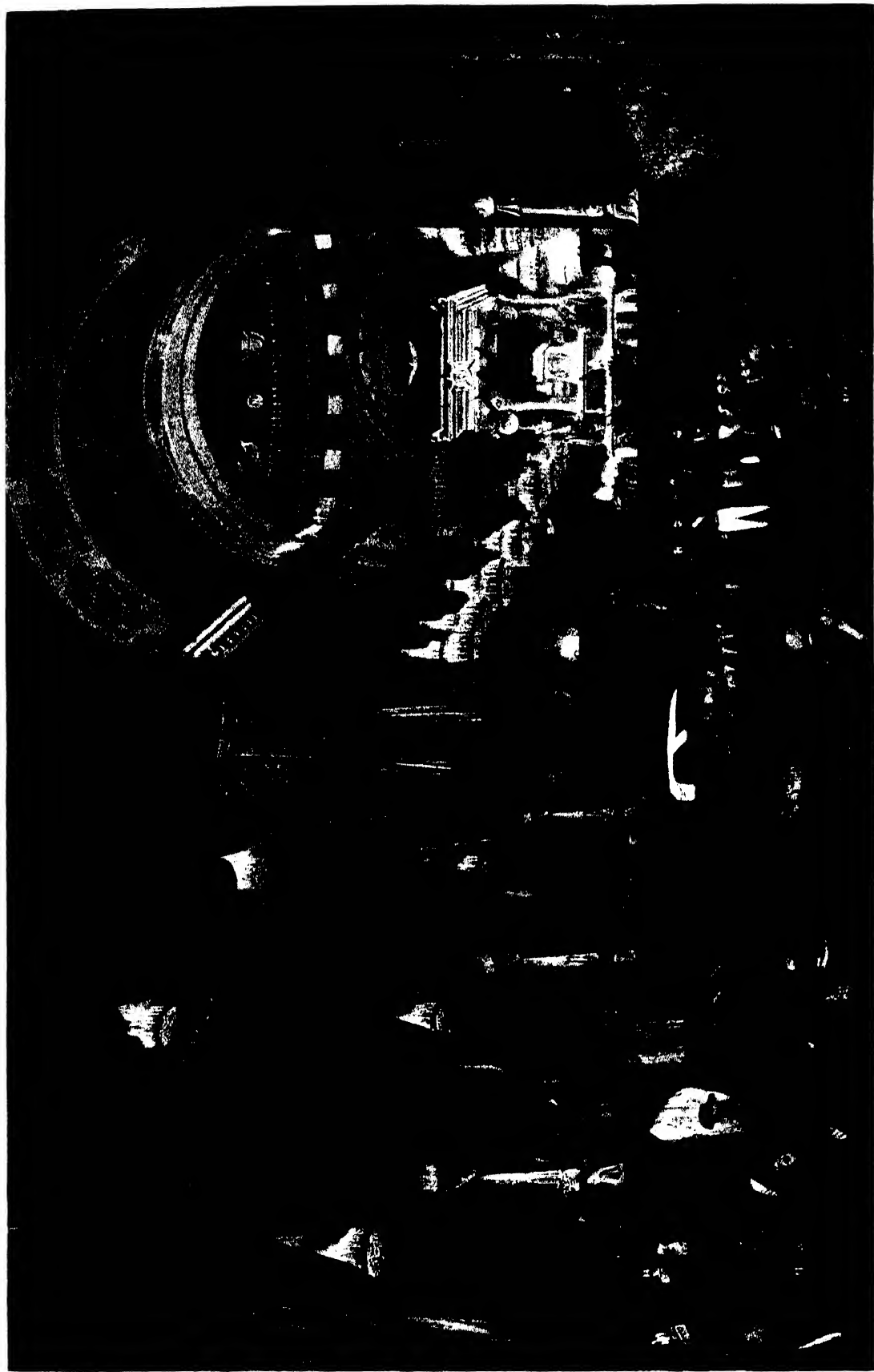


THE FUNERAL PROCESSION OF NAPOLEON IN THE CHAMPS-ÉLYSÉES.

Napoleon's wish that his body should be buried on the banks of the Seine was not realized until nineteen years after his death. But in 1840, as an act of reconciliation between England and France, his remains were taken to Paris and conveyed to their last resting-place on a triumphal car and with full military honours.

weakened by the comparative failure of his Italian policy. He had given liberal institutions to Italy, while hitherto denying them to France. Between 1857 and 1860, however, five Liberals (Les Cinq), of whom Jules Favre and Emile Ollivier were the most distinguished, had showed great skill in criticizing the Emperor's measures, and were no little aided by M. de Morny, the President of the Chamber and the Emperor's half-brother. In November, 1860, probably owing to his influence, a Decree was formulated, which restored the Address to the throne, allowed the publication of reports of the proceedings in the Chambers, and arranged that the Emperor's measures should be defended by ministers without portfolios. The first step was thus taken towards a more Liberal government, and the decree of November 24th, 1860, has been styled "the foundation-stone of the Liberal Empire." On November 15th, 1861, Napoleon declared his intention of reorganizing the financial arrangements of France, and of not raising money when the Chambers were not sitting.

This new direction towards a constitutional government was emphasized by the elections of 1863, the result of which was the return of an influential Liberal party, whose stronghold was Paris, all the



THE FUNERAL OF NAPOLEON.

The last resting-place of Napoleon's remains was the Hôtel des Invalides in Paris, where they were buried amidst the trophies of his victories. The funeral took place on the 15th of December, 1840. The greatest veneration was shown for Napoleon's memory, and the coffin was received in person by the king, Louis Philippe, with whom were his sons, and the chief military and civil authorities, and also a great gathering of the people.

constituencies of which returned Liberals. In 1863 the struggle in Poland for independence broke out, and owing to the attitude taken up by Napoleon, and, indeed, of the French nation, had most disastrous and far-reaching effects upon France. For by his remonstrances to Russia he alienated that power at a time when a good understanding with the Tsar was of vital importance to France. Having failed to persuade Lord John Russell and Lord Palmerston to agree to his suggestion, he accepted the former's suggestion that all the great powers should remonstrate with Russia.

The Tsar's refusal to discuss the matter only resulted in a coolness between France and Russia, which continued for some fifteen years, and left Napoleon in a semi-isolated position. Meanwhile, he was deeply involved in a war in Mexico, and in 1864, by his refusal to join England, he allowed Europe to see the invasion of Denmark by Germany, ending in the possession of Kiel by Prussia, which power shortly afterwards obtained full possession of Schleswig and Holstein. The fact is, Napoleon was bent on the rectification of the Rhine frontier, and had he not lost the friendship of Russia in 1863, and had he joined England in 1864 over the Schleswig-Holstein question, it is quite possible that some rectifica-



From a painting]

[By Horace Vernet, at Versailles.

THE CAPTURE OF THE SMAHLA OF ABD-EL-KADER, MAY 16th, 1843.

This is an episode of the Algerian war. The Duc d'Aumale discovered near Taguin, on the summit of a hill, the smahla, or camp, of Abd-el-Kader. The French general with only a force of five hundred cavalry charged into the Arabs. The Emir escaped, but all his belongings were taken, including three thousand prisoners.

tion might have been effected. In 1865 he dimly realized that by a different policy in the previous years he might have checked the growing power of Prussia. When the war of 1866 between Austria and Prussia threatened the peace of Europe, a proposal was made by the former, which, if accepted by Napoleon, might have arrested the fall of France. The proposal was that Austria should cede Venice to Italy on condition (1) that France and Italy should remain neutral during the coming war between the Courts of Vienna and Berlin, and (2) that Austria, if victorious, should recover Silesia, as against her loss of Venice. Further, that as regarded the Rhine provinces, she would make no objection to the increase of French territory. But Italy, thanks to Bismarck's foresight, was already bound to Prussia, and Napoleon had also a secret agreement with Italy on the subject of Venice. The year 1866 was filled with disastrous omens for France. It was then clearly apparent that the cause of the Archduke Maximilian in Mexico, which had led to a vast expenditure of French money and men, had failed. The French troops were withdrawn from Mexico City, and Napoleon advised Maximilian to abdicate. This he refused to do, and was shot in June, 1867. The rapid successes in the war of 1866 of the Prussians in the war with Austria, too, completely disarranged the plans of Napoleon. At a famous interview at Biarritz with Napoleon the previous year, Bismarck secured himself from all fear of French



THE CAPTURE OF THE MALAKOFF TOWER—CRIMEAN WAR.

The French assault on the Malakoff took place at noon on the 8th of September, 1855. The whole of Bosquet's corps was engaged, and at the word of command they swarmed up to the ramparts. The Russians, who expected an attack at daybreak, were caught unawares, only the gunners and some riflemen being at their posts on the ramparts. Before the defenders, who were in the shelters, had time to gather up their arms the French were rushing through the embrasures. The struggle was desperate, and points of vantage were taken and retaken many times, but in the end the French captured the position.



Photo by]

THE BATTLE OF THE HÉBRA.

[Levy Frères.

This engagement was fought on the banks of the river Hébra by Clausel and the Duke of Orléans against Abd-el-Kader during the French campaign in Algiers, and resulted in a defeat of the Arab leader on December 3rd, 1836.

officers were hopelessly conservative in their views, and the much-needed military reforms were not carried out. Though during the ensuing four years the numbers of the army were increased to some extent, no improvements in the arms took place. Thus the conservatism of the members of the Commission which Napoleon appointed after the Prusso-Austrian war, and their hesitation to ask the Legislature for funds, were among the causes of the success of the Prussians in their war against France in 1870.

There still remained the possibility of strengthening France by alliances, and in May, 1870, General Lebrun, who was sent to Vienna, discussed a project for the invasion of Prussia by France, Austria, and Italy in 1871. But in 1867 Napoleon had alienated Italy by sending a French force to aid the Pope against Garibaldi, and this force had defeated the Garibaldians in the battle of Mentana on October 23rd. Still, the Italians had no love for the Prussians, but until France had invaded South Germany neither Italy nor Austria would undertake to move. Bismarck was probably aware of Napoleon's negotiations and seized upon the "affair" of the Hohenzollern Candidature (June, 1870), to bring about war with France. The famous "Ems telegram" roused the popular fury in Paris when on July 14th it was published, and on the evening of the same day the declaration of war against Prussia was signed by Napoleon's ministers.

The unreadiness of the French army was in striking contrast to the readiness of their opponents.



Photo by]

NAPOLEON III. GIVING ABD-EL-KADER HIS LIBERTY.

[Levy Frères.

Abd-el-Kader, Amir of Mascara, fought for fifteen years against the French in Algiers, but on December 21st, 1847, he surrendered. He was detained at the Château of Amboise in France till 1852, when Napoleon III. released him.

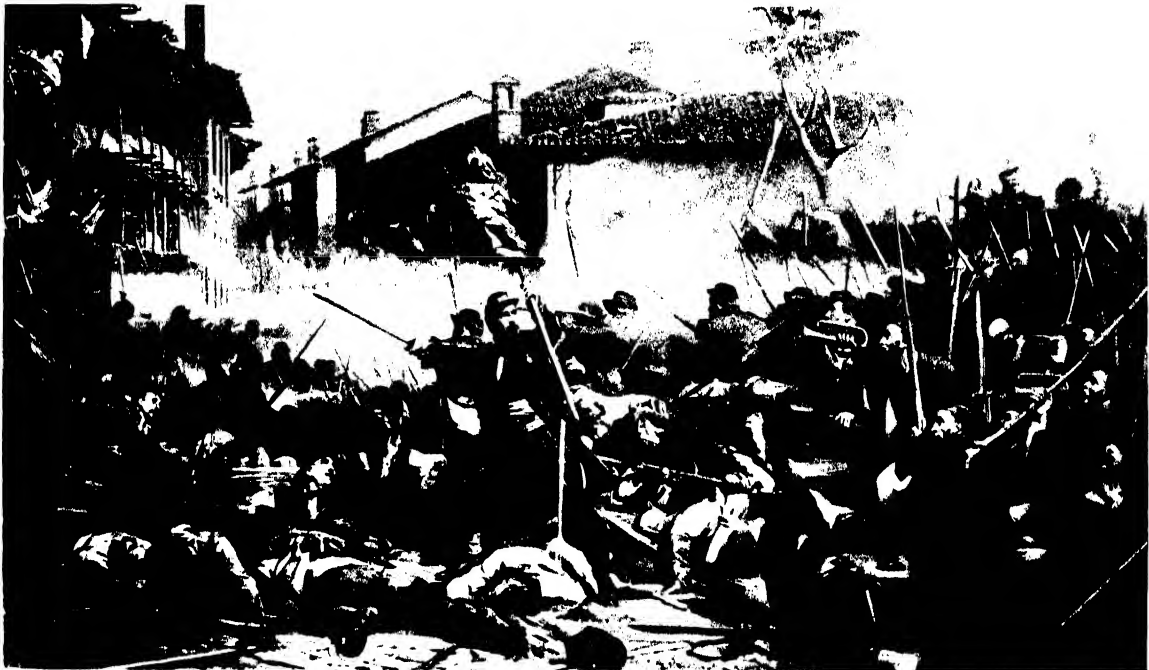
intervention in the coming struggle with Austria, by hinting that Prussia would agree to a rectification of the French frontier on the Rhine. The battle of Sadowa dispelled the expectation of Napoleon that the Austro-Prussian war would last perhaps for years, with the result that French intervention would be invited.

To such an extent had the French troops been employed in the Mexican war that in 1866 France "could not place a fully-equipped army of fifty thousand men on the Rhine." For some time past Napoleon had been aware that his army required reorganization and re-arming. But the French

Napoleon's plans completely failed when war operations began, for he found his armies short of men, badly clad, and with arms inferior to those of their opponents. At Saarbrücken, on August 2nd, a French division, with which was the Prince Imperial, gained a small advantage; but in the battles of Weissenburg and Wörth, on August 4th and August 6th, French armies were badly beaten, and forced to retreat towards Châlons and Metz. These defeats rendered it impossible for Italy or Austria to join in the war, especially as, had they done so, Russia might have come to the aid of Prussia. More fierce battles were fought at Vionville,

Mars-le-Tour, and Gravelotte in August, with the result that Marshal Bazaine, with one hundred and seventy thousand men, was besieged in Metz. MacMahon failed to come to his rescue, and was compelled to move to Sedan, where the final pitched battle of the war was fought on September 1st. There the French were defeated, Sedan was taken, and Napoleon, who had shown reckless courage in the battle, surrendered to the King of Prussia. The French nation, however, continued the struggle. In Paris a government of National Defence was constituted, and in September Paris was besieged.

During the siege, which lasted till February, 1871, war continued in the French provinces, of which Gambetta was the life and soul. A government was set up at Tours, and with Gambetta as Dictator, resistance was offered to the Prussian forces. That resistance was in reality hopeless from the first. Bazaine had capitulated on October 27th, and though fierce battles took place north of Orleans in November and December, all attempts to relieve Paris ended in failure. Chanzy made a brave resistance in Brittany, but neither he nor Bourbaki, whose army finally escaped into Switzerland, could



Painted by]

THE BATTLE OF MAGENTA, 1859.

[From,

On June 4th the French and Sardinians opposed the Austrians before the village of Magenta. For a time the latter held the upper hand, and the French Imperial Guard was almost overthrown, but towards evening MacMahon succeeded in outflanking the Austrians, and they were obliged to retreat after a furious struggle. MacMahon was created a Marshal on the battle-field.

affect the issue of the war. At the beginning of February, 1871, all French resistance in the field was practically over.

FRANCE AFTER THE FRANCO-GERMAN WAR, 1871-1914

THE immediate problems that awaited solution at the close of the Franco-German war were the settlement and execution of the terms of peace and the choice of a form of government which should establish its authority in France, and especially in Paris. By the armistice of January 28th, 1871, it was agreed that elections should be at once held to decide on peace or a continuance of the war. The elections showed clearly that the mandate of the country to the existing government was to make peace. Gambetta, who favoured a continuance of the war, protested with the deputies of Alsace-Lorraine, and others—one hundred and seven members of the National Assembly in all—and, defeated, retired for a time from France. He and the ex-Emperor Napoleon III. agreed that in annexing the provinces Germany made a most serious mistake. The supremacy of Thiers was, however, now unquestioned, and on February 17th he was nominated Chief of the Executive Power of the French Republic for the time

being. His duty was to bring about a stable and honourable peace and then the reorganization of France. His ministry, which he at once formed, included Jules Favre, Jules Simon, Ernest Picard, and General le Flô, who were all opponents of Gambetta. The peace negotiations were begun on February 21st, and resulted in the Treaty of Frankfurt.

The National Assembly, elected during the armistice following the capitulation of Paris, which had met at Bordeaux to decide on the question of peace or a continuance of the war, contained about four hundred supporters of the late government and about three hundred and fifty Republicans. Grévy, a Republican and an opponent of the policy of Gambetta had been elected president, but Thiers, who was then at the height of his popularity, was the chief of the executive power of the French Republic.

The Assembly, having accepted the preliminaries of peace and voted the deposition of Napoleon III., decided to move its headquarters to Versailles in March. Then ensued that terrible time in Paris during which the Commune established itself till the end of May, when the French troops, after a week's street fighting, re-established order and the supremacy of the Assembly. Though the majority in that Assembly was not Republican, Thiers, encouraged by the strong Republican feeling in many of the departments,



Painted by]

[Meissonier.

NAPOLÉON III. AT THE BATTLE OF SOLFERINO, 1859.

On the 24th of June the allied French and Sardinians defeated the Austrians in the decisive battle of Solferino. The losses on both sides were very heavy. Errors of strategy were largely responsible for the Austrian defeat, but Marshal Benedek safely covered the retreat of his army. The terrible sufferings of the wounded brought about the Geneva Conference in 1864, and the subsequent organization of the Red Cross League.

decided to remain in office, and to work for the liberation of French soil from the enemy. The Assembly, in August, decided by a large majority that the chief executive officer should take the title of President of the French Republic, with the right of nominating and dismissing his ministers. Versailles at the same time was fixed as the meeting-place of the National Assembly and of the ministry. It was not, however, till four years had elapsed that a definite Constitution for France was framed.

As time went on, successive departmental elections gave testimony in favour of Republicanism to such an extent, that in 1872 Republicans formed two-thirds of the Assembly, and Gambetta could declare at Grenoble in the autumn that political power had passed into the hands of *une couche sociale nouvelle*. Consequently the position of Thiers, who in the previous August had been appointed President of the French Republic, was much strengthened. Late in 1872 the Comte de Chambord wrote the first of his famous letters, which eventually proved fatal to the hopes of the French monarchists, and, consequently, strengthened the cause of Republicanism. In March, 1873, Thiers had completed the liberation of French territory by paying the last instalment due to Germany, and was encouraged in his continuous efforts to establish firmly in France republican constitutions.

Under the guidance of Thiers France recovered in the most amazing fashion from the disasters of the late war. Till his fall, he had acted as chief minister, and had carried out a system of army



From a painting

THE BATTLE OF CHAMPIGNY.

[By Yencelle, at Versailles.

On December 2nd, 1870, the Germans met the French at Champigny under Ducrot. The French general was not well supported by his artillery officers, and he realized that it was impossible to pierce the enemy's lines. This sanguinary engagement, a struggle of the fiercest character, met with no decisive result. But the French sustained the heavy loss of twelve thousand men, hundred of whom were killed.



CHARLES LOUIS NAPOLEON
BONAPARTE.

Elected President of the French Republic in 1848, he became Emperor in 1852. After surrendering to the Prussians in 1870, he fled to Chislehurst in England.

reorganization, which rendered her stronger than she had been for many years. He had "reformed the Conseil d'Etat, and the jury system, and given France a wholly new system of secondary education." His financial policy was equally beneficial to France. By his skill and the confidence which he inspired, he had rendered it possible for France to pay off the enormous indemnity to Germany in a comparatively short time. "He found France," it is said, "rolling in the trough of the sea; in two years he gave her a system of government and set her head straight." It would have been well if some of his immediate successors had carried out an equally straightforward and effective policy. His was a *régime* of common



THE EMPRESS EUGÉNIE

Was the daughter of a Spanish nobleman, Cyprien Montijo, Duke of Pénaranda, and Marie Manuela Kirkpatrick, of Cloacburn, Scotland. She was married to Napoleon on January 29th, 1853.

sense. He was succeeded on May 25th, as President, by Marshal MacMahon, with whom was attached a number of ministers, such as the Duc de Broglie, Minister of Foreign Affairs, who was opposed to the establishment of a democratic government. On June 15th, 1874, Casimir-Périer carried a motion which implied the definite establishment of a Republic, and from that day the influence of the Left Centre, which was strongly republican in its views, steadily increased. The work of drawing up a constitution then proceeded, and on February 24th, 1875, by a majority of one vote, a Senate was established, while on February 25th a Chamber of Deputies was also established, resting on universal suffrage. The end of the year saw the definite completion of the Republican Constitution, and France embarked upon a new system of parliamentary government. That year (1875) was, in other respects, notable in French history, for in the spring France suddenly awoke to the fact that she was apparently threatened by a fresh attack from Germany. Fortunately the danger of a fresh European war was realized by Queen Victoria and the Tsar, both of whom made emphatic representations to the Emperor of Germany. Bismarck disavowed any hostile intentions towards France, and the crisis—if there had been one—passed away.

In January, 1879, MacMahon retired, and Jules Grévy was elected President of the Republic. The Republican party had conquered, and henceforth the executive as well as the legislative power was in its hands. Waddington became Prime Minister and Gambetta, the chief founder of the Republic, President of the Chamber.

The first result of the Republican triumph was seen in the enactment of the anti-clerical Ferry laws, the famous Article VII., aimed at the Jesuits, excluding from State schools and from the profession of teaching "all members of unauthorized religious communities." The year which saw this attack on the Church was notable for the death of the Prince Imperial in Zululand, and also for the first definite appearance of the Socialist party in France, which was represented by Clémenceau in the Assembly. His proposal for a complete amnesty of the Communards led to the retirement of Waddington, who was succeeded by M. de Freycinet, whose ministry only lasted till September, 1880, his conciliatory attitude to the Church being opposed by his colleagues. During the ministry of Jules Ferry, which continued till October the following year, the country was stirred by Gambetta's declaration in favour of the ultimate recovery of Alsace and Lorraine, a declaration which aroused much enthusiasm throughout

France and increased the speaker's popularity. After a general election, which showed how immense was the hold which Gambetta had on the nation, Ferry resigned nominally owing to attacks on his support of the French occupation of Tunis, and Gambetta formed a ministry in October, 1881. Gambetta was only able to include in his "*Grand Ministère*" men of mediocre ability, and being subject of the charge of endeavouring to set up a dictatorship, he was driven from office in January, 1882. The Freycinet ministry, which succeeded him, and which only lasted for six months, is one of great importance in French history. At the beginning of the year a revolution had taken place in Egypt, when Arabi led a military and national rising. That year, 1875, saw the purchase of the Khedive's shares in the Suez Canal by the British government. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 was due to the skill of Lesseps, and, consequently, the French regarded themselves as specially interested in Egyptian affairs.

The English government, upon Arabi Pasha's revolt in 1881 against the new Khedive, Tewfik, invited the concurrence of the French government in suppressing the revolt, and had Gambetta been in office, that invitation would probably have been accepted, with results of vast importance. But France was then involved in costly operations in Tonkin, and her hands were full. Consequently, by a majority of four hundred and seventeen to seventy-five, the Chamber decided not to join the English in the suppression of the rising, and consequently a British force bombarded Alexandria on July 9th, 1882, defeated Arabi in the battle of Tel-el-Kebir on September 13th, and set up a veiled protectorate in Egypt. When the subject of French intervention in Egypt was discussed Gambetta, in powerful language, advocated a close Anglo-French alliance. Before the year was over he was dead.

Already, however, France had taken a serious interest in Africa. By the Treaty of Bardo, on May 2nd, 1881, the government had declared its protectorate over Tunis—a step which sooner or later was bound to lead to annexation. This action caused a break in the diplomatic relations of France and Italy for a short period; but the policy of the French government led to the union of Italy with Germany and Austria in the Triple Alliance of 1883. This movement coincided with the extension of French power in the Far East. In 1862 Napoleon III. had acquired Saigon, and in 1874 the Republic had concluded a treaty with the King of Assam, which led to difficulties with China. Ten years later, in 1884, China



From a painting]

[By R. de Lou Rios,

AN EXECUTION OF COMMUNISTS IN 1871.

The siege of Paris was followed by the rising of the Commune on March 18th, 1871. After ten weeks of hard fighting in the Paris streets, the Commune was suppressed by rigid measures on May 20th. Nearly forty thousand Communists were taken prisoners by the government and many of the ringleaders were shot.

recognized the French protectorate over Assam and Tonkin, and shortly afterwards made a commercial treaty with France.

The year 1883 was, in its early months, an exciting one for France. The Orleanist princes were removed from active service in the army, and Jules Ferry became Premier. It was decided that no member of a family which had reigned in France should be eligible for the Presidency; and, further, that the Republican form of government should never be revised. Jules Ferry was driven from office, and after a general election Freycinet, formed a Cabinet, which saw the appearance of General Boulanger, the Minister of War---a vigorous opponent of the Orleanist princes. Boulanger remained a member of the Goblet Cabinet, and obtained some popularity during "the Schnaebele incident," which



Painted by E. Boutigny.]

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.

AN EPISODE OF THE FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR IN 1870.

The artist has depicted very vividly one of the terrible street fights which took place between the French and Prussians. The advance guard of Prussians and Bavarians are seen forcing back the French in their advance into a small French provincial town, the houses of which have already been shattered by artillery fire.

seemed to indicate the possibility of war with Germany. In May, 1887, Rouvier formed a new ministry, which did not include Boulanger, who for some time was accused of planning a *coup d'état*.

Meanwhile M. Grévy had resigned his office of President, owing to the connection of his son-in-law, M. Daniel Wilson, with corrupt practices. His successor as President was M. Sadi Carnot, an illustrious Republican "of unimpeachable probity," and his influence was used to check the "flood of Boulangism." However, in 1889, M. Constans, the Minister of the Interior in the Cabinet presided over by Pérard, issued a warrant against the general for conspiracy against the Republic. Boulanger fled to Belgium, and France saw him no more.

The year 1893 at one time seemed likely to see the outbreak of hostilities between France and England over the former's aggressive policy in Siam. The intervention of England on behalf of Siam, however, proved successful, though France annexed a portion of Siamese territory. The general election of 1893



From a painting by A. Moret in the Luxembourg.

A CHARGE OF THE FRENCH CUIRASSIERS.

[Photo by E. Fiorillo, Paris.]

The French have always shown undaunted bravery in their splendid cavalry charges. The picture gives a vivid impression of one of the cuirassier regiments in action during the Franco-Prussian War of 1870. There are twelve of these regiments of heavy cavalry in the French army; the picturesque steel helmet and breastplate (or cuirass) have been used by them since the sixteenth century.

was marked by the apathy of the voters in the provinces, the only interesting fact being the increase of Socialist deputies.

During the years from 1885 to 1895 the foreign relations of France were characterized by a growing friendship for Russia and a feeling of hostility to England. In 1888 French financiers floated a Russian loan, and in 1891 the visit of a French squadron to Cronstadt marked the beginning of a close understanding with Russia, which was followed by a defensive military alliance in 1892, and in June, 1893,



GENERAL KITCHENER MEETS MAJOR MARCHAND AT FASHODA, 1898.

With the object of uniting French possessions in the Congo and on the Red Sea, Major Marchand was sent on a mission to occupy Fashoda on the Upper Nile. In an interview Lord Kitchener, then General Sir Herbert Kitchener, Sirdar of Egypt, declined to recognize the occupation of any part of the Nile Valley. The matter was amicably settled between France and England after acute tension.

its views upon taxation were fiercely opposed by the Conservatives. Differences of opinion among its own supporters weakened it, and in April, 1896, Bourgeois retired, leaving Méline to form a ministry composed of the Moderates. His policy was to preserve the *status quo*, and not to embark upon fiscal reforms. In 1896 and 1897 the reality of the alliance between France and Russia was emphasized by the visit of the Tsar and Tsarina to France in October, 1896, and by that of the President of the Republic, accompanied by Hanotaux, to Russia in August, 1897.

by a commercial treaty. A visit of a Russian squadron to Toulon took place in October of that year. In 1896 a Franco-Russian alliance was recognized as an accomplished fact.

In 1894 the Emperor Alexander died, and his successor, Nicholas II., was imbued with peaceful ideas. The Franco-Russian alliance thus assumed a pacific character, not altogether in consonance with the expectations of the French people. The French Foreign Minister, M. Hanotaux, was, it is said, "daily multiplying difficulties with England in Africa and in Asia," and for a time a sort of Franco-German-Russian *entente* seemed to have been created. The existence of this *entente* was evident during the Chino-Russian war, one result of which was to eventually unite England and Japan together. In fact, until the end of 1898 it seemed not unlikely that France and England would gradually be drawn into war, much to the satisfaction of one, at least, of the great European powers.

On November 1st, 1895, Léon Bourgeois formed a Radical ministry. It entered almost immediately upon a struggle with the Senate, while



Louis Adolphe Thiers, 1797-1877. Distinguished statesman. He protested against the Franco-Prussian War, knowing France was unready. President of the Republic, 1871-1873.



Ferdinand de Lesseps, 1805-1894. Famous French engineer and diplomatist. Ambassador at Madrid, 1848. Engineer of Suez Canal, but his Panama Canal project was a failure.



Marshal MacMahon, Duke of Magenta, 1808-1893. A distinguished soldier of Irish descent. Taken prisoner at Sedan in 1870. President of the Republic, 1873-1879.

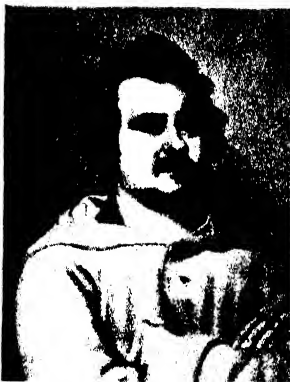


Léon Gambetta, 1838-1882. French statesman of Jewish origin, prominent during the Franco-Prussian War. He escaped from Paris in a balloon. Was made Premier 1881-1882.

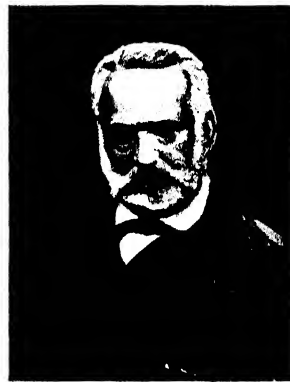
During this period no concession was made to the Catholics, and at the same time no action was taken against the Socialists. In 1898 a general election took place, and the Radical party secured, by an alliance with the Centre, a majority against the ministers.

After the fall of M. Brisson in October, the Dupuy ministry was formed, with Delcassé at the Foreign Office. That ministry had to deal with a crisis in the relations between France and England. In September, 1898, a British force, under Lord Kitchener, had occupied Khartoum, and at the same time Jean Baptiste Marchand reached the valley of the Bhar-el-Gazal. In October Kitchener and Marchand met at Fashoda on the Nile, and for a time war between France and Great Britain seemed imminent.

The Anglo-French discord over the question of colonial expansion had now reached a serious crisis. Had war broken out between the two countries the only power that would have benefited would have been Germany. Instead, however, of war taking place, an agreement was come to by the governments of the two countries. Early in 1899 the French Ministry acknowledged that the whole Nile valley lies within the British sphere of influence, and Great Britain agreed to a disposition of the hinterland of Tripoli favourable to France. In February, 1899, Loubet was elected President of the Senate. The year 1899 proved to be one of unusual importance. It saw the opening of the war between England and the Transvaal and Orange Free State Republics, during the opening scenes of which much sympathy for the Boers was shown in France, as in Germany, both of which countries did not at first appreciate the



Honoré de Balzac, 1799-1850. The celebrated French novelist. He wrote many books, which are considered the greatest in the Realistic school of French literature.



Victor Hugo, 1802-1885. The chief of the French Romantic authors of the nineteenth century. But his title to fame rests in his poetry, unsurpassed both in rhyme and rhythm.

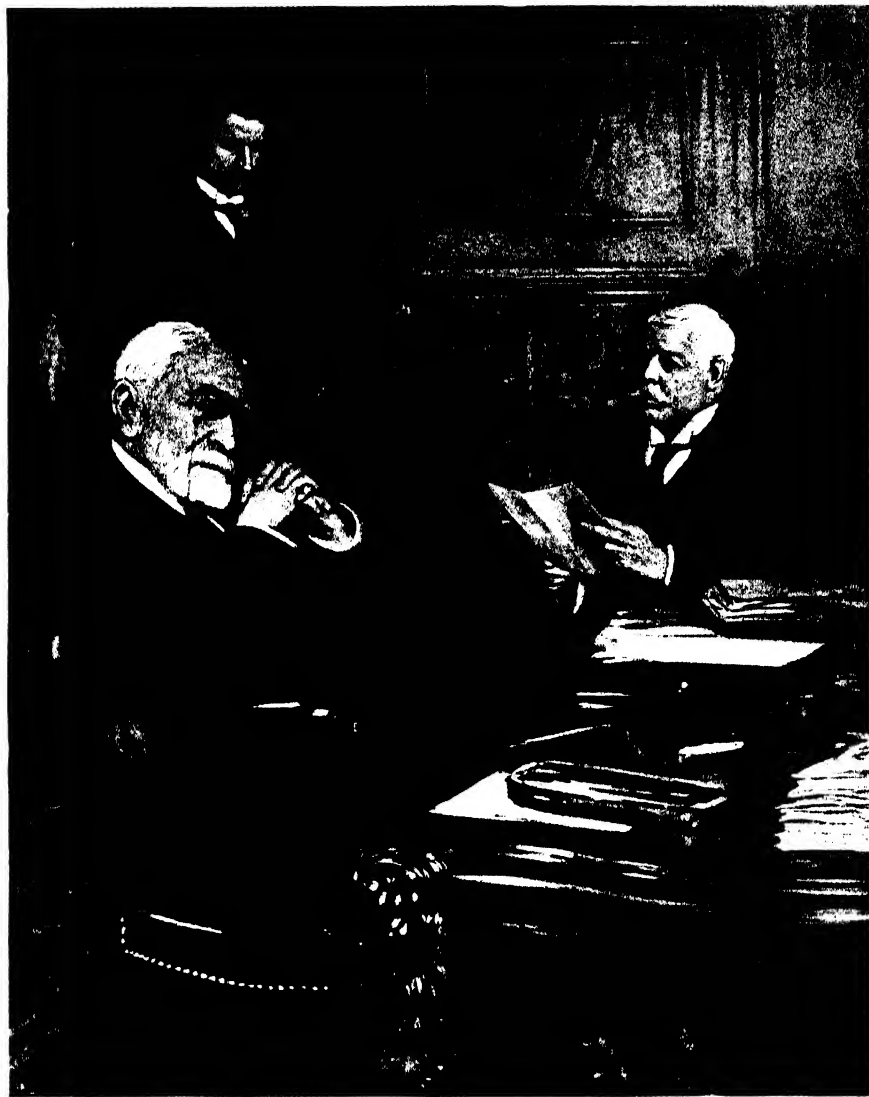


Joseph Ernest Renan, 1823-1892. Foremost in the French school of critical philosophy. As a theologian, he broke away from the usual methods of investigation.



Alexandre Dumas père, 1802-1870. French dramatic author and historical novelist. He wrote "The Three Musketeers" and its sequel, "Twenty Years After," and many other works.

real position in South Africa, and the magnitude of the questions at issue. During the year a new ministry under Waldeck-Rousseau was formed, a ministry which included one Socialist—Millerand—and it was decided that the fresh trial of Dreyfus, which had been ordered in August, 1898, should take place. Though at Rennes the Council of War confirmed the sentence passed on Dreyfus in December, 1894, of having betrayed his country to Germany, the Court of Cassation a year later reversed the above



GERMANY'S NOTE TO FRANCE, 24th JULY, 1914.

Austria's war on Serbia was much resented by Russia, who refused to remain inactive whilst a kindred Slav nation was being beaten to the ground. Baron von Scholz, German Ambassador to France, is seen reading to M. Bienvenu-Martin, acting Foreign Secretary, a communication from his government approving Austria's action, and declaring that if the conflict did not remain localized the gravest consequences must be feared.

Egypt, and over Siam and Newfoundland—these agreements implying the establishment of close friendly relations, which proved of great importance during the ensuing years. In 1905 the Kaiser's visit to Tangier (March) was followed by the retirement of M. Delcassé from his post as Minister of Foreign Affairs, and by the meeting of the Algeiras Conference, which testified to the close connection between England and France. In 1911 that friendship was again illustrated when the German occupation of Agadir took place, and a European war was only prevented by the solidarity of England and France. On January 17th, 1914, M. Poincaré was elected President of the French Republic.

sentence, and declared the unfortunate man innocent. The inner meaning of the Dreyfus affair is difficult to appreciate, but it would seem that for several years the Republic was in some danger of an alliance between the chiefs of the army and the Ultramontane party in France. Consequently, Waldeck-Rousseau, in 1900, attacked religious associations, and on his retirement, in 1902, his successor Combes, with whom was Delcassé as Foreign Minister, continued his policy and dissolved all religious associations (other than charitable) which had failed to give an account of their endowments and statutes. Pope Pius X. unwisely protested against President Loubet's visit to the King of Italy in April, 1904, and, consequently, the relations between the French government and the Vatican were suspended, and the separation between Church and State in France became inevitable.

During these years the relations between England and France had become more intimate, and in 1904 important agreements were concluded over Morocco and

DATES OF PERSIAN HISTORY

EMPIRES AND DYNASTIES.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
PERSIAN TRADITION: 3000 B.C. 836 B.C.	B.C. 3000 2000-1750 1750-836 1300-900	Sumerian, Scythian and Dravidian occupation. Aryan immigration from the East. Aryan occupation. Medes, Persians, Parthians. Semi-mythical PESHADIAN DYNASTY. Founders of the Persian nation. Zoroaster and foundation of Zoroastrianism. 1000-750. Rise of the Magi (Zoroastrian priests): GATHAS (songs) of the Zend <i>Avesta</i> .
ANCIENT PERSIAN HISTORY: 836 B.C.-651 A.D. ASSYRIAN SUZERAINITY: 836-640.	850-824 668-626	SHALMANESER II. 836. Attacks the Medes. 715. SARGON. Captures the Median prince DEIOCES. ASHURBANIPAL. 640. Medes independent under Phraortes. Rise of the Achæmenids in Anshan (Elam).
MEDIAN EMPIRE: 640-550.	640-625 625-584	PHRAORTES. 626. Inroads of the Scythians (AFRASIARTS). Foundation of Ecbatana. CYAXARES. 606. Overthrows Sardanapalus of Nineveh. 585. Battle with the Lydians.
ACHAEMENIAN (KAIANIAN) EMPIRE (PERSIANS): 550-330.	558-528 528-521 521-485 485-468 465-424 404-359 359-338 330-330	CYRUS. 550-539. Conquers Babylonia and Asia Minor: proclaimed "King of Babel." 539-528. Conquers all Persia (Iran). 528. Killed in battle with the Dahans. CAMBYSES. 525. Conquers Egypt. DARIUS (I.) HYSTASPES: extends the Empire. 510. Suppresses the false SMERDIS and others. 490. Defeated by the Greeks at Marathon. Builds Persepolis. XERXES: interferes in Greek politics and is defeated; 480, at Salamis; 479, at Plataea. ARTAXERXES I. Decadence of Zoroastrianism: rise of Mithraism. ARTAXERXES II. 401. Rebellion of CYRUS THE YOUNGER. 387. Empire extended to all Greece by the Greek Generals, Mentor and Memnon. ARTAXERXES III. 359-336. Rise of PHILIP of MACEDON and Macedonian power. DARIUS III. 336. Accusation of Alexander. Defeats of the Persians: 334, at Granicus; 333, at Issus; 331, at Gaugamela (Arbela).
MACEDONIAN DOMINATION (GREEKS): 330-312.	336-323 323-312	ALEXANDER THE GREAT. 330. Assumes Persian Empire, burns Persepolis. 327-325. Expedition to India. 325. Founders Greek autonomous cities over Empire. 323. Dies at Babylon. Rule of the DIADOCHI, Alexander's Generals. 321. Rise of the Seleucids.
SELEUCID EMPIRE (GREEKS): 312-165.	312-281 281-202 202-240 223-187 170-163	SELEUCUS NICATOR: secures Babylonia. Hellenizes the Empire. 305. Treaty with Chandragupta Maurya (India). 301. Acquires Syria. ANTIOCHUS (I.) SOTER: consolidates the Empire. ANTIOCHUS (II.) THEOS. 255. Revolt of Diodotus in Bactria (Balkh). 248-211. ARSACES, Parthian nomad chief, conquers Khorasan and becomes Persianized. Indo-Bactrian and Parthian kingdoms on the Indian frontier. ANTIOCHUS (III.) THE GREAT. Revival of the Empire. 190. Conflicts with the Romans commence. ANTIOCHUS (IV.) EPIPHANES. Conflicts with the Parthians. 165. Overthrow of the Empire.
ARSACID (ASCANIAN) EMPIRE (PARTHIANS): 165 B.C.-226 A.D.	170-138 138-127 124-88 70-57 57-37 37-2 A.D. 10-40 51-77 115-117 147-191	MITHRIDATES I. 165. Drives out the Seleucids: 159. Inroads of the Scythians. PHRAATES II.: wars with the Bactrians and Babylonians; 127. Killed by the Scythians. MITHRIDATES (II.) THE GREAT defeats the Scythians. 92. First contact with Rome. PHRAATES III. 69-64. Struggles with Pompey and the Armenians (Roman vassals). ORODES I. 53. Defeat of Crassus at Carrhae. 40-38. Raid of PACORUS into Syria. PHRAATES IV. 30. Defeats Mark Antony. 20. Restores the standards of Crassus to Augustus. ARTABANUS II. Decline of Hellenism in Persia. VOLOGESES I. 62. Defeats the Romans. Harassed by Scythians and Alans (Ossets from Russia). MITHRIDATES III. 113-117. War with Trajan, Hadrian, and Kushans of India. VOLOGESES III. collects the sacred Zoroastrian writings into the Pahlavi <i>Avesta</i> . 164. Romans destroy Hellenism in Persia 179. Introduction of Aramaic literature.
SASANIAN EMPIRE (PERSIANS): 226-651.	212-241 241-273 276-293 293-302 310-379 388-399 399-420 420-438 438-457 457-484 488-531 531-579 579-590 590-628 628-630 632-651	ARDASHIR. 226. Destroys the Arsacids. Continues the Pahlavi <i>Avesta</i> . Spread of Mithraism, decadent Zoroastrianism: conflict with Christianity. Rise of the Mobeds (Great Magi). SHAPUR I. 242. Rise of Manichæism. 260. Defeat of Valerian at Edessa. BAHRAM II. 277. Execution of founder of Manichæism. 283. Defeat of Carus. NARSAH (NARSES). 296. War with Galerius. 297. Peace with Rome. SHAPUR II. 330. Persecution of Christians. Successful wars with Rome. 353. War with the Eastern nomads. 355. Founders Nishapur. Completes the <i>Avesta</i> . BAHRAM IV. 399. Treaty with Theodosius the Great: peace with Rome. 399. Murdered. YAZDAJIRD I. "the sinner," favours the Christians. 402. Alliance with Theodosius II. BAHRAM (V.) GOR. 430. Destruction of the House of the Arsacids. Persecution of Christians, unsuccessful wars with Rome, and restoration of the Christians. YAZDAJIRD II. Persecutions of Christians. 454. Inroads of the HAITAB (WHITE HUNS). PEREZ. Ravages of the White Huns. 483. Rise of the Nestorian Christians. KURAD I. 490. Deposed and restored by the White Huns. 531. Defeat of Belisarius. Favours the Mazdakis (free-love communists). 528. Their massacre by his son Khusrû. KHUSRU I. (CHOSROES, ANUSHIRWAN), Champion of Zoroastrianism and persecutor of Christians. Great administrator and patron of philosophy and letters. 540. War with Romans till 562, commencement of the 40 years' peace. 545. Rise of the Turks. 560. Disappearance of the HORMAZD IV.: Supporter of Christians. 590. Murdered. KHUSRU II. (PARVEZ). 602-610. Successful war with Romans. 614. Carries off the Holy Cross from Jerusalem to Ctesiphon (Baghdad). 623-628. Disastrous war with Heraclius. ARDASHIR III. 529. Cross restored to Jerusalem by Heraclius. 630-632. Anarchy. YAZDAJIRD III. 633. First appearance of Muhammadan Arabs. 636. Battle of Kadişiya. 641. Battle of Nihavand and flight of Yazdajird. 651. Murdered at Merv.
MEDIEVAL PERSIA: 651-1499. THE CALIPHATE (ARABS): 651-1055 (nominally to 1258). CALIPHS OF MEDINA: 644-661. OMAYYAD CALIPHS OF DAMASCUS: 661-750.	644-656 661-680 680-683 684-685 685-705 705-714 724-743 744-750	OMAR. 651. Persia a province of the Caliphs of Medina. 656-661. ALI. Rise of the Sufî'as. MOAWIYA. Persia a province of the Omayyad Caliphs: Capital at Damascus. YAZID. 680. HUSAIN, son of ALI, killed at Kerbela: origin of the Muharram Festival. MERWAN I. War with the Shi'as under Mukhtar. ABDUL-MALIK. First personal Arab ruler and administrator. Arab coinage. WALID I. Persia comes under Shi'a influence. HISHAM. Shi'a troubles. Rise of the Abbasids in Khorasan. MERWAN II. Omayyad Caliphs overthrown by Abu'l Abbas and the Persian Shi'as.
ABBASID CALIPHS OF BAGHDAD: 750-1055 (nominally to 1258).	750-754 754-775 775-784 786-809 809-813 813-833 833-842 842-846 846-861 864-1055	ABU'L-ABBAS. Persia the headquarters of the Caliphs. AL-MANSUR. Recovery of Persian nationality. 758. Rebellion of the RAWENDIS: the Abbasids become Sunnis. 763. Foundation of Baghdad. AL-MAHDI. 776-779. Rebellion of AL-MOKANNA, the veiled prophet of Khorasan. HARUN-AR-RASHID. Persecution of the Shi'as. Rebellions in Khorasan and Samarkand. AL-AMIN. 811. Rise of TAHIR ZU'L-YAMINAIN (with two right hands) in Khorasan. AL-MAMUN. 820. Encouragement of Greek science. 827-846. The MU'AZILI (Muhammadan Rationalist) doctrine the State religion. Rise of local Dynasties: 820-873. TAHIRIS OF KHORASAN: 825-898. DULAFIS. AL-MOTASIN. 833. Introduces the Turkish guard. Suppression of BABAK and the HASHIMIYA SECT (Mazdaki Communists, 808-836). AL-VATHIK. Introduces system, afterwards common, of fining high officials for peculation. AL-MUTAWAKKIL. 846. Restores the Sunni faith: persecution of Shi'as, Christians and Jews. 861. Murdered: the power of the Caliphs passes to the Turkish guard. Local Dynasties: 864-928. ZALIDS in Tabaristan. 866-900. SAFFARIS in Fars. 879-930. SÂJIS in Azerbaijan. 928-1032. ZIYARIS in Jorjan. Caliphs' suzerainty nominal.

DATES OF PERSIAN HISTORY—continued

EMPIRES AND DYNASTIES.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
SAMANIDS OF BOKHARA AND SAMARKAND (PERSIANS): 837-1005; as Regents for the Caliphs: 892-945	907-913 913-942 954-961 961-976 976-997	AHMAD. Rise of Samani literature, industrial arts (pottery, tiles) and commerce. NASR II. 870-940. Rudagi, first great Persian poet. ABDU'L-MALIK I. Rise of the Ghaznavis under ALPTAGIN OF GHAZNI, a Turkish. MANSUR I. Bala'uni's translation of Tabari (838-923): earliest Persian prose work. NUH I. 968-1049. Sheikh Abu Sa'id of Mahna, founder of Persian Sufi poetry.
BUYIS (DAILAMIS) OF FARS AND BAGHDAD (PERSIANS): 933-1055; Regents for the Caliphs: 945-1055.	974-983 990-998 1040-1055	AZADU'DDAULA. 977. Restores Husain's tomb at Kerbela: Shi'a's ascendant. BAHA'U'DDAULA. 998. MAHMUD OF GHAZNI (997-1030) in Khorasan. Patron of Firdusi (941-1020), father of modern Persian literature: of Al-Biruni (973-1048), historian. MALIK AR-RAHIM. Baghdad taken by Toghrul Beg Seljuk and the Buyis destroyed.
SELJUKS (TURKS): 1037-1305; as Regents for the Caliphs: 1037-1195; as Sultans of Rum (Syria): 1084-1305.	1037-1063 1063-1091 1071-1092 1092-1104 1118-1157	TOGHRUL BEG. Restoration of the Sunni faith. ALP ARSLAN. 1071. Capture of the Byzantine Emperor, Romanus Diogenes. 1065-1092. Career of NIZAMU'L-MULK, greatest administrator of Persia. MALIK SHAH. 1074. Reform of the Calendar (Jalali). 1090. HASAN SABAH (1040-1124) founds the Dynasty of the ASSASSINS (HASHISHIN, ISMA'ILIYA) (1090-1255). 1040-1123. Omar Khayyam (astronomer poet). BARKHIYARUK. Civil war; adventurous career. Rise of the ATABEGS (provincial regents). SINJAR. 1141. Defeated by the KARAKITAI MONGOLS, who obtain Empire. Rise of MINOR SELJUK DYNASTIES: 1073-1175, KIRMAN: 1118-1194, IRAK.
SHAHS OF KWARIZM (TURKS): 1077-1231; as Regents for the Caliphs: 1195-1220.	1172-1199 1230-1231	TUKUSH. 1199-1220. ALAU'DDIN MUHAMMAD. Rule extended in Central Asia. JALALU'DDIN MANGBARTI. 1230. Defeated by the Seljuk Kaikubad of Rum (1219-1234). 1231. Conquered by OGODAI KHAN, the Mongol leader (1227-1241).
SALGHARIS (ATABEGS) OF FARS (TURKS): 1145-1260; as Regents for the Caliphs: 1226-1258.	1226-1260	ABU BAKR (KUTLUGH BEG). Patron of Sa'di (poet, 1184-1275). 1231-1256. Country over-run by Tule Khan, the Mongol leader.
THE MONGOLS: 1258-1499; THE IL-KHANS (VICEROYS) OF PERSIA: 1258-1344.	1256-1265 1265-1281 1281-1284 1284-1291 1291-1295 1295-1304 1304-1316 1315-1395	HULAGU. 1255. Destroys the Assassins of Alamut. 1258. Enters Baghdad: end of the Abbasid Caliphs. Shamanism (spirit-worship) the State religion. ABAGHA. Peaceful ruler: marries daughter of Michael Palaeologus, Byzantine Emperor. NIKUDAR (NICHOLAS) AHMAD KHAN. Converted to Islam. Persecution of Christians. Supports the Crusaders against the Mamelukes of Egypt. ARGHUN. 1289-1291. SA'DU'DDAULA (a Jew) Minister: Jews and Christians become powerful. POPE Nicholas IV. (1288-1292) proposes a new Crusade. KAIKHATHU introduces paper money. GHAZAN MAHMUD. General conversion of Mongols to Muhammadanism. ULJAITU adopts the Shi'a faith. 1316-1335. ABU SA'ID last Ilkhan to rule personally. Civil war. 1336-1356. HASAN BUZURG JALAIRI (KHAJAR), Regent. Minor Dynasties. 1330-1411. JALAIRIS of Baghdad. 1313-1399. MUZAFFARIS of Fars: Jalalu'ddin Shah Shuja' of Shiraz, patron of Hafiz (poet, 1315-1338). 1337-1380. SARDARIS of Khorasan. 1245-1383. BENT KURI of Khorasan. 1337-1355. JUHANIAS of Azerbaijan.
TIMURI DYNASTY (MONGOLS): 1305-1468.	1309-1405 1408-1446 1446-1450	TIMUR LANG (TAMERLANE). 1369. Creates his Asiatic Empire. 1387. Massacre of Isfahan. 1395. Adds Persia to his Empire. SHAH RUKH I. 1425-1468. Rise of the Black Sheep (Standard) Turks (Karakuyunli). ULUGH BEG. Issues astronomical tables. 1450-1499. Continuous civil war.
KARAKUYUNLI DYNASTY (BLACK SHEEP TURKS): 1450-1497.	1450-1468	JAHAN SHAH. 1468. Ousted by the White Sheep (Standard) Turks (Akkuyunli). Tabriz a great capital and centre of Persian art.
AKKUYUNLI DYNASTY (WHITE SHEEP TURKS): 1468-1487.	1468-1478	UZUN HASAN. Marries Despina, d. of John Comnenus (Calo Johannes), Christian Emperor of Trebizond. His daughter, Martha, marries SHEKH HAIDAR SUFI of Ardabil: mother of Isma'il Safavi. Great extension of Sufi mysticism in Persia.
TIMURI OF HERAT: 1487-1506.	1487-1506	HUSAIN MIRZA. Patron of Jami (1414-1492), last Persian classic poet: and of Mirkhond (1433-1498) and Khondamir (1475-1534), historians.
MODERN PERSIA FROM 1499. SAFAVI (also SUFI and HAIDARI) DYNASTY (PERSIANS): 1499-1736.	1499-1524 1524-1576 1586-1628 1641-1668 1668-1694 1694-1729	SHAH ISMA'IL. 1499. Takes Tabriz and proclaimed Shah of Persia. Revival of the Shi'a faith: 1502. Doctrine of the Twelve Imams. 1507. Portuguese at Ormuz. 1510. Defeat of SHAHRIBANI (SHAH BEG) (Uzbek (Mongol) in Khorasan. 1514. Defeated at Khof by Selim I. of Turkey: definite split between Shi'a and Sunni. SHAH TAHMASP I. 1533-1576. Wars with Sultan Sulaiman the Magnificent. 1521. Anthony Jenkinson, ambassador of Queen Elizabeth to the "Great Sophie (Sufi)." 1576-1586. Civil war. SHAH ABBAS I., THE GREAT. Toleration of Christians. 1608. Sends Sir Robert Shirley as ambassador to James I. of England. 1622. Portuguese expelled from Ormuz: English and Dutch factories at Combroon. 1628-1641. SHAH SUFI. SHAH ABBAS II. Embassies from Europe: 1664. From Russia. SHAH SULAIMAN. Great Court at Isfahan. French Missionaries. SHAH HUSAIN. 1708. Rise of the GHILZAI AFGHANS (Sunnis) at Kandahar. 1721. Russians under Peter the Great on the Caspian. 1722. Battle of Gulnabad (Kandahar). 1723. Usurpation of MAHMUD GHILZAI. 1725. Succession of ASHRAF GHILZAI. 1727. Acknowledgment of the Sultan of Turkey as Khalifa.
NADIRSHAH DYNASTY (PERSIANS): 1736-1760.	1736-1747 1747-1760	SHAH TAHMASP II. 1730. Expulsion of Ashraf Ghilzai by Nadir Kuli of Khorasan. SHAH ABBAS III. An infant. 1736. Nadir Kuli proclaimed Shah and saviour of his country. NADIR SHAH. Sunni faith in the ascendant: restoration of all lost territories. 1746. Treaty with the Turks. 1747. Murdered by his guards. SHAH RUKH II. Anarchy: the Bakhtiari and Zends (Kurds) in power. Rise of the Kajars (Turks) of Astrabad. 1760. ALI MARDAN BAKHTIARI murdered.
THE ZEND VAKILS OR REGENTS (KURDS): 1760-1795.	1760-1779 1785-1795	KARIM KHAN. As Wakil (Regent): no suzerain. 1770. Dutch in Karak. LUTF ALI KHAN. Struggles with the Kajars: defeat and murder by Aga Muhammad.
KAJAR DYNASTY (TURKS): from 1795.	1795-1797 1797-1834 1834-1837 1847-1896 1896-1906 1906-1909 1909	AGA MUHAMMAD SHAH. Troubles with Catherine the Great of Russia. Shi'a's ascendant. FATIEH ALI SHAH. 1800, 1812 and 1825. Wars with Russia. 1801-1807. Negotiations with Napoleon. 1812. British and Russian rivalry commences. MUHAMMAD SHAH. 1837. Siege of Herat on Russian advice. 1840. Rebellion of the AGA KHAN, chief of the Isma'iliyas (Assassins). 1844. Rise of THE BABIS, Shi'a sect. NASIRU'DDIN SHAH. 1856-1857. War with England. 1862-1872. Indo-European Telegraph. 1873-1880. Visits to Europe. 1885-1890. Rivalry between Russia and England. MUZAFFARU'DDIN SHAH. 1898. Abortive British loan: 1900. Russian loan. 1900-1902. Visits to Europe. 1902-1907. Afghan boundary commission: British-Russian Convention. 1906. The Majlis (Parliament) created: Shah a constitutional monarch: revolution and Shah deposed. MUHAMMAD ALI SHAH. Troubles with the Majlis. 1909. Deposed. SULTAN AHMAD SHAH. 1912. Career of MORGAN SHUSTER, American, Treasurer-General. 1914. British Government obtains control of the Southern Persian oil-fields.

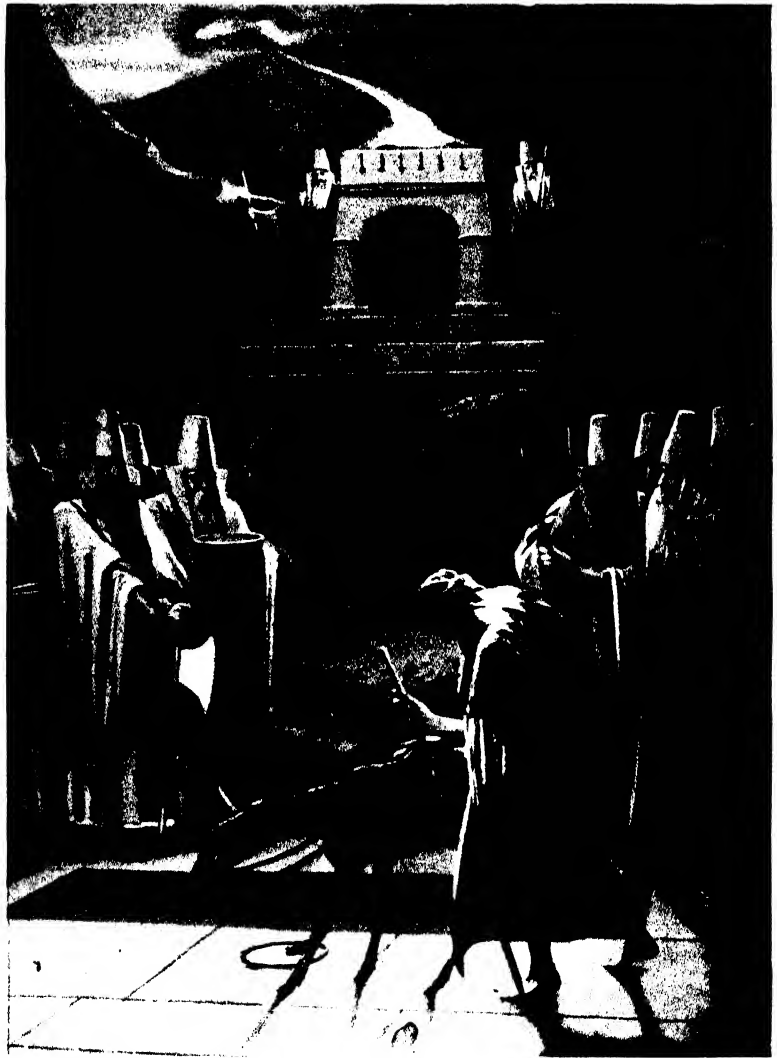
CHAPTER XIV

THE PERSIANS. By SIR RICHARD TEMPLE, BART., C.I.E.

For historical purposes Persia may be taken to be the Iranian plateau, the raised mountainous region lying south of the Caspian Sea and between the plains of the Tigris on the west and of the Indus on the east.

At the earliest period of which we have any knowledge, this country was dominated by Aryan tribes of exactly the same description as those that migrated into Northern India, of which the Persians (Pārsa), occupying Persis, the modern district of Fārs, as a vigorous agricultural race, formed part. They used a variety of the Aryan language, and called themselves Aryans (Airya) and their land Airyāna, whence the modern Persian term Irān for the country and the European generic term Iranian for the race. These Aryans were not aborigines in Persia any more than they were in India, but immigrated from the east, finding their future home already occupied by tribes of another race altogether, now represented by the Brahūis of Balūchistān, which spoke languages of a non-Aryan type (Sumero-Akkadian, Dravidian). Whence one can imply that these earlier tribes—recognized even in the ancient days as non-Aryan (Anariacæ) belonged generally to the great Dravidian race which spread itself over India in pre-Aryan days there. The statements of their more advanced Western neighbours, the Assyrians, show that, during the first half of the second millennium B.C. these Aryan immigrant tribes were well established in their various seats in Persia.

The inscriptions of Darius (521–485 B.C.), and the statements of the earlier parts of the *Avesta* (c. 1000–750 B.C.), and of Herodotus (484–425 B.C.), enable us to fix the Aryan tribes in their settlements with some accuracy: Medes (Mada) in the north-west; Persians (Pārsa) in the south; Hyrcanians (Varkāna) by the Caspian; Ariāns (Haraiva), Drangians (Zaranka) and Arachosians (Harauvati) in Afghānistān; Baktrians (Bākhtri), Sogdians (Sugudu) and Chorasmians (Khwārizmians, Uvarazmia), to the north of the Hindu Kūsh. In addition to these there were the Parthians



Painted specially for this work

[By Herbert Gandy.]

THE BEGINNINGS OF FIRE-WORSHIP.

The practice of the ancient Aryans of Persia was to sacrifice before altars tended by "fire-kindling" priests (*āthrauan*). This led to the worship of the sacrificial flame itself, the only point of the ancient ritual fully preserved by Zoroaster in his reforms. Hence the popular identification of Zoroastrianism with fire-worship.

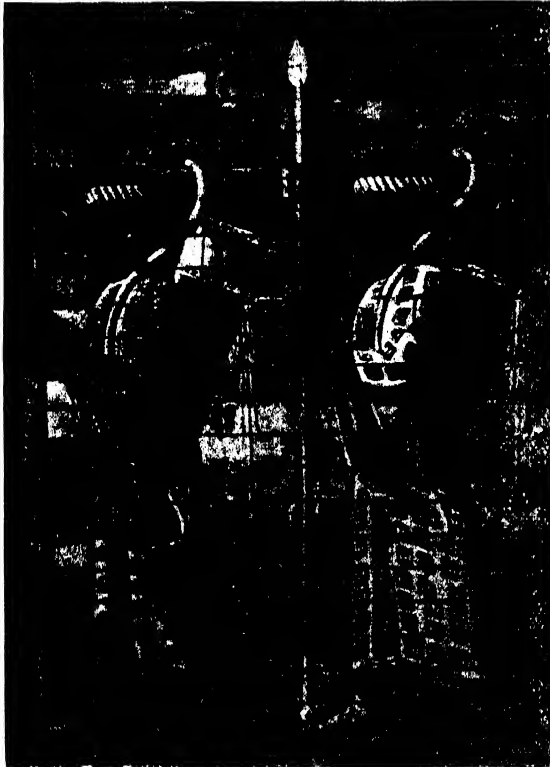
(Pārthava) of Khorāsān, in Persia proper, and the Dahans (*daha*, enemy), Aryan robbers, still remaining in the northern Steppes.

So much of ancient Persian history has come down to us through Greek and Latin sources, and both the Greeks and Romans were such inveterate corrupters of foreign names and words, that the appearance of Persian names of all sorts most familiar to European eyes is greatly distorted from their proper vernacular form. It will therefore be necessary for recognition to give many of them in these pages in both the usually accepted and the uncorrupted forms.

The early Aryans of Persia lived a pastoral-agricultural life in settlements of precisely the same type as those of their congeners in India, and were rendered strong and hardy by the rigorous climate of the

land of their adoption. Their mode of life also made them, like the Indian Aryans, specially venerate the cow as the chief giver of food and aid to mankind; while their general religion was animistic, with a great number of gods to whom sacrifices were performed by a priesthood (*āthravan*, fire-kindlers). This led to a worship of the sacrificial flame itself, still a principal article of faith among the Pārsīs of India, who preserve the ancient traditions to the present day in this respect, and also in the sacredness of the Earth. This last idea has brought about the well-known Pārsī exposure of corpses on grids in towers to the birds of the air, to avoid the pollution of the Earth which is involved in burial. The ancient priests naturally became the repositories of sacred tradition and the mediators between gods and men; and, as in India, they formed an hereditary sacerdotal caste, in later days known as the Magi (*magu*, *mugh*), taking an important part in the State and imposing their form of Aryan doctrine on Medes and Persians alike.

An immense amount of sacred and quasi-historical legend and story sprang up at this time, which the reforming forces of Zoroastrianism and Muhammadanism were alike unable to suppress, owing to the great national Epic, the *Shāhnāma* of Firdūsī (941-1020 A.D.), which so skilfully blended them with those of ancient Islām that they are familiar to every Persian at the present day. Indeed, Zoroastrianism (first millennium B.C.) helped to preserve this legendary



ANCIENT ARCHERS FROM A FRIEZE AT SUSA.

The ancient Persians owed their empire to the extraordinary mobility of their army of well-trained archers which overwhelmed the enemy with clouds of arrows before they could close. It was not till the Greeks learnt how to come to close quarters with heavy infantry that they were defeated at Marathon and Plataea (490 and 479 B.C.).

religious lore by adopting the old gods and heroes as the servants of its own God, Ahuramazda (Hormazd, Ormuzd, the Supreme Wisdom). Many a personal name in Persia and India is still referred to the legendary heroes of this time, often spoken of as the days of the Peshdadian Dynasty. Such names are Jamshēd, Farīdūn, Hoshang, Manuchīhr, Rustam, Sohrāb.

There is much, therefore, that is identical in the primitive thought and reasoning respectively of India and Irān; but, nevertheless, there was a parting of the ways, both intellectually and morally, dating as far back as the migrations eastwards and westwards themselves. The Indian philosophy created a mystic pantheism and an absorption of man in God, in reference to which the substantial world was held to be as nothing. By complete contrast, the Iranian philosophy controlled practical life by moral commandments. The difference is fundamental, making the Persian pantheism positive, "affirming the world and life, taking joy in them, and seeking its ideal in common with a creative God," in contradistinction to the Indian pantheism, which is negative, "denying world and life and desecrating

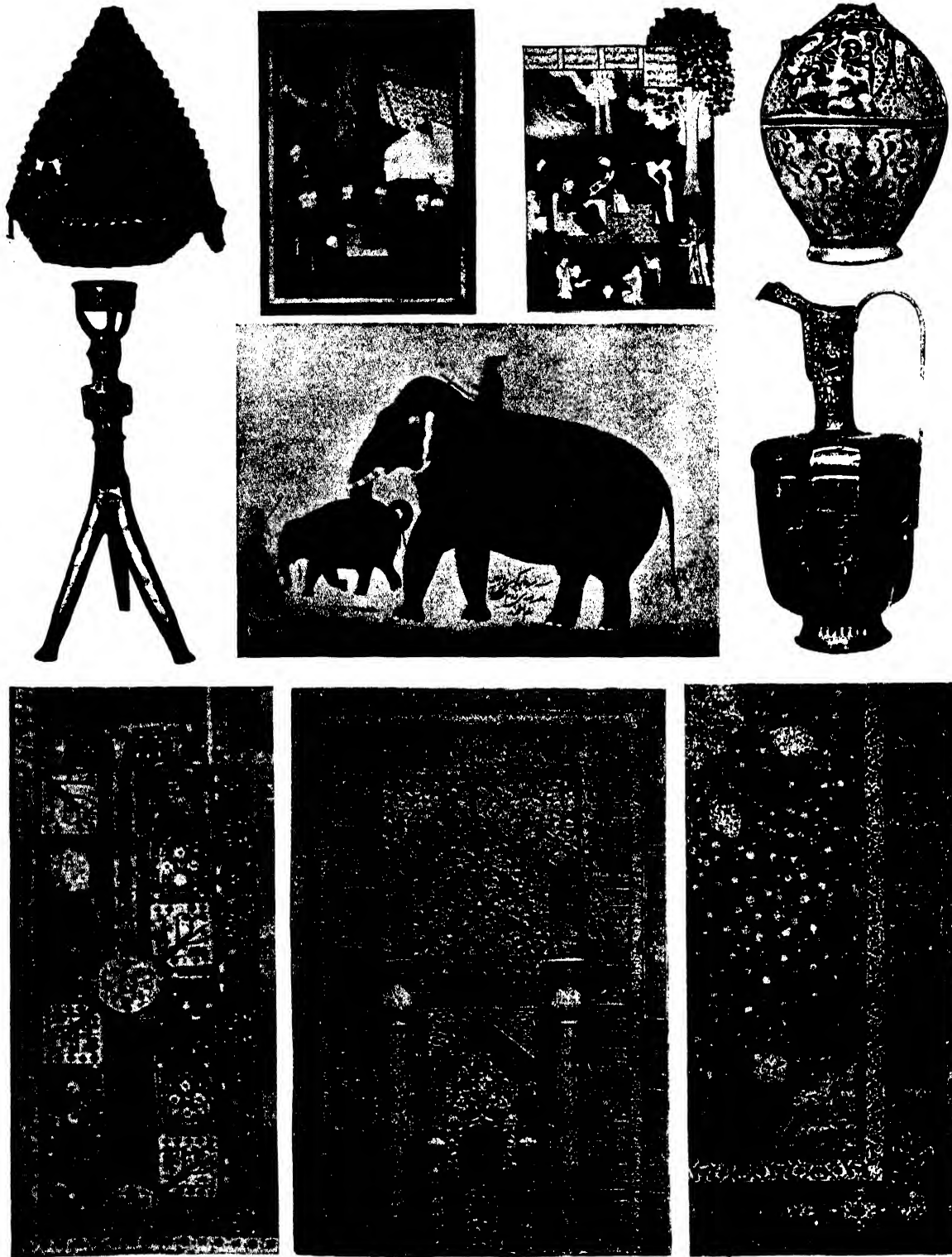


Painted specially for this work

CAVALRY OF SHAHRBARAZ CHARGING.

by J. H. Valla

From the Achaemenian period (538-330 B.C.) the Persians always succeeded in battle on the same principle—good shooting from a distance with arrows which threw the enemy into confusion, and enabled them to charge with success. The Parthian archers (170 B.C.—226 A.D.) carried the principle to mounted men, and thereafter the Persian armies were mainly cavalry, proving a thorn in the side of the Romans for centuries owing to their extreme mobility and good shooting.



Figures 2, 3 and 6 by permission of Messrs. Bernard Quaritch; 8 and 10 by Messrs. Vincent Robinson & Co.; 4, 5, 7 and 9 by G. R. Preece, Esq., C.M.G., exhibited at the Vincent Robinson Galleries.

PERSIAN ART.

Reading from left to right from top: Ancient Sasanian helmet; "Reception of a Prince," from MS. of Nizāmi, A.D. 1494, signed Mirak Churāsāmi; Shirin receiving portrait of Khusrān, from MS. of Nizāmi, dated A.D. 1494, by Mirak; early lustre faience found at Astāneh; archaic bronze tripod 2,000-3,000 years old; Shah Jahān on an elephant, school of Shāh Jahān; chased brass ewer inlaid with silver, made at Mosul thirteenth century; quarter-section of sixteenth century royal "garden" carpet reputed to have been made for Shāh Abbās for Sefavi Palace, date 587-1628, and a copy of one made for Khusrū I., sixth century; Mehrāb, or prayer niche, formed of tiles, date 1226 A.D.; quarter-section of "The Holy Carpet of Mosque of Ardabil" dated 1540.



Painted specially for this work]

[By Gerard Leake.

WEeping FOR THE FALL OF NINEVEH, 606 B.C.

The foundation of the Median Empire (640-550 B.C.) was popularly attributed to Deioces in 715, but Phraortes was the first ruler of the Medes to become independent of the Assyrians in 640, and it was not till Cyaxares overthrew Sardanapalus in 606 that the Medes succeeded the Assyrians at Nineveh as formidable opponents of the Babylonians.

taken from the ancient deities, who were, of course, recognized as gods by the people through all time : Mithras, the Sun-god ; Anāhita Ardivisurā (Anaitis), the River-goddess ; Verethraghna (Artagnes), the Dragon-slayer ; Haoma (Soma), the Liquor-god. Zoroaster preserved in all its fullness only one point in the ancient Aryan belief : the sanctity of Fire as the manifestation of the powers of Good, erecting fire-altars everywhere with a fire-kindling priesthood attached thereto, whence the popular identification of Zoroastrianism with Fire-worship. And then he placed Mankind midway between the powers of Good and Evil, laying upon man the responsibility of the choice as to which he will follow, and so govern his fate for himself on the Day of Judgment.

Zoroaster thus gave to each individual of a settled peasant population a definite activity in life independent of national sentiment, and so his creed was from the first individualist and propagandist, claiming universal acceptance. It produced a national character visible in all Persian history, promoting alike individualism in the man and unity in the Iranian nation. But it succumbed to the inherent weakness of a creed based on moral precepts, developing a casuistry and an external formalism, which so stifled its original spirit that the land eventually became dominated by sacerdotal ritualism provided with an inexhaustible stock of formulæ for prayer and magical protection against evil.

its ideal in the cessation of existence." This fundamental difference runs through all Persian history, producing in the end, under the influence of the Muhammadan supremacy, the wonderful theosophy of the Persian Sūfis (from 874 A.D.), a blend of the joyous ancient pantheism with the fatalist monotheism of the mystics of Islām.

About 1300 B.C., but still in the days beyond positive dates, there arose, in the Baktrian regions, Zoroaster (Zarathrushtra, Zardusht), the philosopher of the ancient Persians, living under the patronage of Gushtasp (Vishtaspa), chief of one of the petty kingdoms of Eastern Irān. Zoroaster welded the floating beliefs of his day into a definite religious doctrine of his own creation, preserved in the *gāthas* (songs) of the Zend *Avesta*, which was the guiding light of the ancient Persian Empires, and is still the foundation of the Bible of the Pārsīs of India. Hence, in any description of the Persians Zoroastrianism must be given a prominent place.

In its essentials Zoroastrianism teaches the existence of a truceless war between the powers of Good (Spenta Mainyu, Holy Spirit ; Ahuramazda, Supreme Wisdom) and Evil (Angra Mainyu ; Ahrimān), each with a number of "servants,"

Dated history in Irān begins with the attacks on the Medes by the Assyrians under Shalmanaser II. (Salmānuasarid, 859-824) in 836 B.C., which were continued until Sargon (Sarrukinu, 722-705) captured the Median chief Deioces (Dayukku, Kaikubād) in 715. He was, however, nevertheless looked on by his countrymen in later years as the founder of their empire. The Assyrian suzerainty lasted on till towards the end of the reign of Ashur-bani-pal (668-626), when the Medes became independent, about 640, under Phraortes (Fravartish, 646-625).

The history of the period, always confused, then becomes complicated by an invasion of Scythian (Sāka) hordes from the eastern mountains north of Afghānistān, which weakened the Assyrian power and penetrated to Syria and Palestine in 626. Before 606 they were ousted by the Mede Cyaxares (Uvakshatra, Kaikāūs, 625-584), as in that year he overthrew Sardanapalus (Sinsharishkun, 616-606), of Nineveh, allied himself to the Chaldaean Nabopolassar (625-604), founder of the Neo-Babylonian Empire (625-539), and overran the country eastwards over most of Irān and westwards as far as the Halys in Asia Minor. Thus was founded the short-lived Median Empire, the most formidable neighbour of Babylon, with its latest capital at Ecbatana (Hangamadāna, Hamadān). It came to a rapid end when the Persian Achæmenid Cyrus (Kurush, Kaikhusrū, 558-528), King of Anshān in Elam (Susiāna), one of the greatest figures of antiquity, revolted against Astyages (Istuvegu), son of Cyaxares, and defeated him in 550 B.C. at Pasargadae (Murghāb, near Persepolis), in Persia proper.

The Achæmenian (Achæmenid, Hakāmanishya, also Kaianian) Dynasty obtained its name from Achæmenes (Hakāmani), the eponymous ancestor of the Persian clan to which Cyrus and his successors belonged. Between 550 and 519 its first three rulers by sheer force of conquest raised a previously obscure tribe to the mastery of the greatest empire of far antiquity, welded the whole Persian nation together, and made it the foremost people of the ancient world.

The immediate result of the defeat of the Median ruler by Cyrus was a coalition against him, including



Painted specially for this work]

CYRUS RESOLVES TO REBEL AGAINST ASTYAGES THE MEDE.

[By M. Duvaston, R. B. A., N. B. A.]

Cyrus the Great was the fourth chief of the Achæmenid (Persian) clan which ruled in Anshān or Elam (Persia proper) as vassals of the Median Empire. He is said to have become a voluntary slave at the Court of Astyages, the last of the Medes, at Ecbatana (Hamadān) before he rebelled and overthrew him at Pasargadae (Murghāb) in 550 B.C.

Nabonidus of Babylon, Amasis of Egypt, Cræsus of Lydia and the Spartans of Greece ; but in the sequel they were all defeated, and by 539 Cyrus was ruling Asia Minor, Syria and Palestine, and under his assumed title of " King of Babel " the Chaldæan Empire of Babylon as well. He was master also of all Irān, meeting his death in 528 in a war against the Dahans, the old nomad enemy of the Persians to the east. In 525 his son Cambyses (Kambūjiya, Lohrasp, 528-521) conquered Egypt, and Darius (Dārayavaush, Dārāb, Dārā, 521-485), the son of Hystaspes (Vishtaspa, Gushtasp), his kinsman, took the Ægean Islands. At this time occurred the curious usurpation of the impostor Gaumāta, masquerading as Smerdis (Bārdaya), the murdered brother of Cambyses, which roused wholesale insurrections ; but Darius had suppressed them all by 519.

The methods by which all this was accomplished in so short a time illustrate the eternal principles of imperial conquest and sway. In the first place, these rulers had, through the inspiration of Cyrus, a completely organized army of cavalry and infantry, in which every Persian able to bear arms was

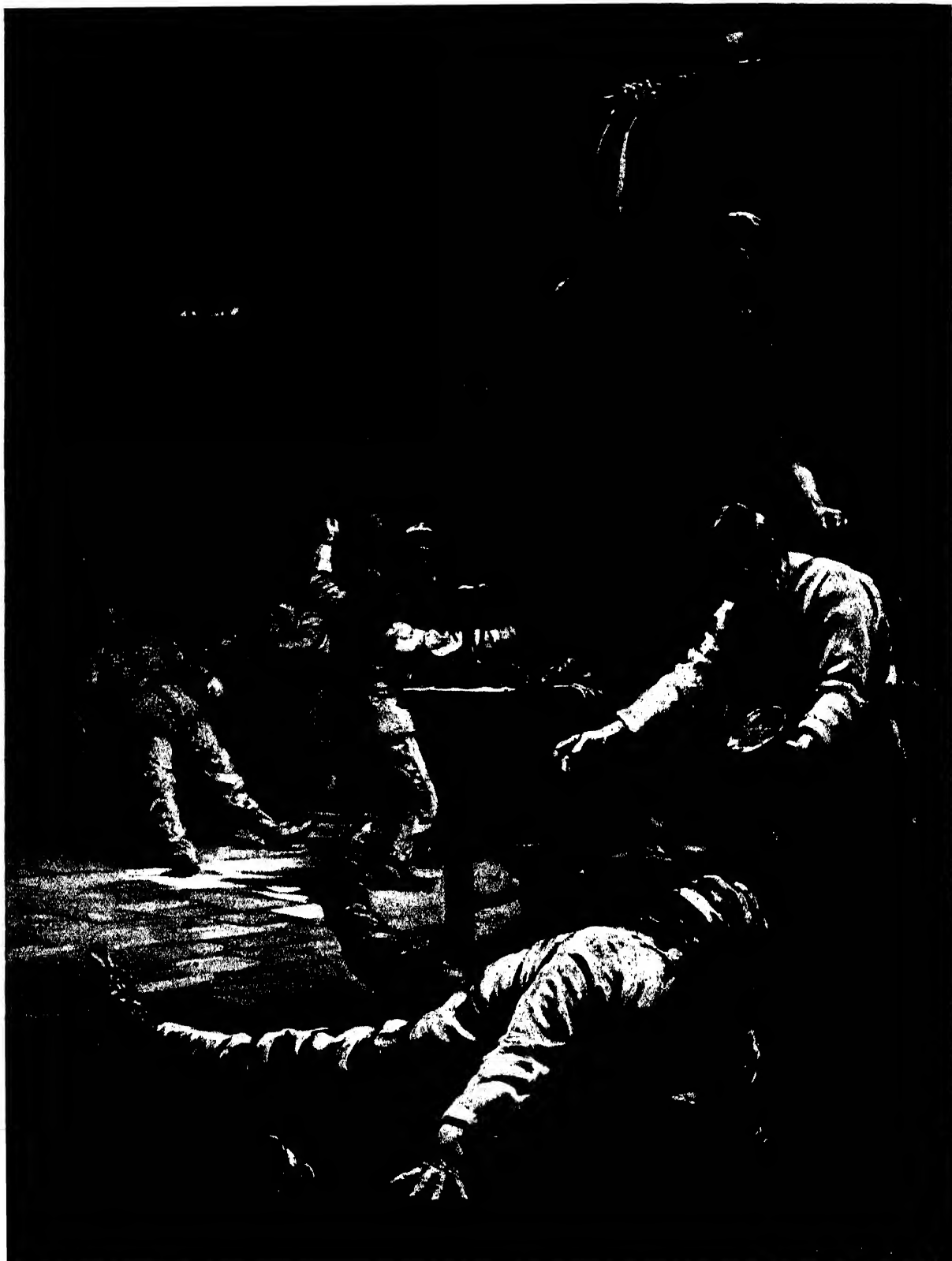


SARGON'S CASTLE AT KHORSABAD

In 707 B.C. Sargon of Assyria, who had much to do with the Medes of Persia, built himself a palace known as Dur-Sarrukīnu (Sargon's Castle) about twenty miles north of Nineveh at the modern Turkish village of Khorsabad. The remains were found on excavation between 1843 and 1853 to be wonderfully well preserved.

bound to serve. This army was raised out of a manly, hardy, patriotic and enthusiastic peasantry, thoroughly believing in itself and its leader : " a Persian, the son of a Persian, an Aryan of Aryan stock," is Darius' proud description of himself on his tomb. Both rank and file were exceptionally well trained to the use of the bow, lightly accoutred and extraordinarily mobile. The leaders were thus enabled to employ novel tactics, overwhelming the enemy by arrows before they could close, and following up the advantage thus gained by a vigorous pursuit. Until Marathon (490) and Platea (479) the Persians overthrew every kind of enemy they met, but the organization had the defect of being unable to withstand heavy infantry, such as that of the Greeks, if manœuvred into close quarters, and this eventually led to its undoing.

In the second place, on the initiation of Cyrus the Achæmenian rulers thought and acted imperially. Cyrus himself was uniformly humane in his conquests. He destroyed no town and slew no vanquished king, and in Babylonia, the most highly organized and civilized state in his dominions, he behaved as the constitutional governor. Even the ill-regulated and unstable Cambyses adopted Egyptian ways, and Darius, the organizer, the believer in the destiny of his race—to which the great God, Ahuramazda, had given dominion " over this earth afar, over many peoples and tongues," whom he was pledged to



Painted specially for this work]

[By M. Donovan, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE MASSACRE OF THE SCYTHIAN CHIEFS BY CYAXARES THE MEDE.

The Central Asian hordes known to history as the Scythians harried the Persian territories from very early times till the end of the first century A.D. In the days of Cyaxares the Mede (625-584 B.C.) they ruled over the whole of Western Asia for twenty-eight years, until he made the chiefs drunk at a banquet and had them all slain.¹



Painted especially for this work]

THE DEFEAT OF CROESUS BY CYRUS.

[By R. Oyle.]

The overthrow of the Median Empire by Cyrus was followed by a combination of all the great powers of the day against him, led by Croesus, the wealthy king of Lydia. Cyrus anticipated the attack and defeated them in detail, beginning in Cappadocia with Croesus in 546 B.C., whom he followed to his capital Sardis, finally annexing his kingdom to the Persian Empire.

govern aright and civilize—dealt honourably with the conquered and admitted their leaders to the administration. Darius, in fact, went too far in this direction, and some of his concessions to local aspirations had to be withdrawn by his successors, as both Egypt and Babylonia waxed fat and kicked. The Persians proper were, of course, in the best position, and indeed it must have been a fine thing to have been a Persian in those days, for they paid no taxes and received a goodly personal share of all the wealth gathered from abroad. No wonder they were proud and loyal.

The empire was ruled variously from Persepolis (Pārsa), built by Darius, and from Susa, Babylon and Ecbatana, all in the region of the Euphrates and Tigris. Darius divided it into twenty provinces (satrapies) under viceroys or satraps (*kshatrapavan*), each with subordinate governments, and in the west with city-states as well, which enjoyed a separate autonomy. Within their satrapy the subject races had much freedom of self-government, the imperial duty being the maintenance of peace and communications, the official messengers travelling "swifter than the crane" from end to end of the empire. The result was an immense variation in provincial administration, suited to local civilization and indicated by every system of finance between the use of minted money and trade by pure barter.

The political effect of the ancient Persian Empire was to civilize, to improve communications, agriculture, finance and trade, as seen in the great irrigation "tank" of Darius at Herāt, in the exploring voyage of Scylax of Caryanda from the Indus to Suez (509), in the harbours of the Persian coast, in the completion of Necho's canal from the Nile to Suez, in the attempted voyage round Africa by Xerxes (c. 475). Curiously, however, the system of issuing decrees in a cuneiform script adopted from the Medes, with vernacular translations attached as required locally, led, from the unsuitability of the script to any material but stone or clay, to the rapid decay of the old Persian language in favour of leading provincial written tongues, such as Pahlavī (Pehlevī, Parthian), Aramaic (Syriac), Demotic (popular Egyptian) and Greek.

Something of the same kind happened to the industrial art created by these great emperors. Though splendid and the greatest of its kind in Oriental countries, it was too imperially eclectic to last, and died

practically with the empire. In architecture, however, their achievements were of a far more permanent character, for the ancient rulers of Babylonia, Assyria and Persia were builders on an immense scale, and some of their methods still affect the architectural habits of the East. The early Babylonians (3000-625), the Assyrians (2000-606), and the later Babylonians (Chaldeans, 625-539), all built in a style having similar characteristics: an immense and lofty mound or plinth of very hard sun-dried bricks as a protection against the inundations to which Babylonia was liable; a stage-tower (*ziggurat*), consisting of several stories, each set back from the one below so as to form a series of terraces, highly decorated palaces and houses on terraces with very thick walls, elliptical barrel vaults or round or conical domes. After the Babylonians and Assyrians came the Medes, as an imperial power (640-550), hailing from Persia proper, who built immense halls of wooden (cedar and cypress) columns covered with silver plate, and so when the Achæmenid Cyrus conquered the Medes and overcame the later Babylonians he succeeded to two widely differing styles of architecture on a large scale. The result was that the Achæmenian style was a combination of both—of the huge high platform, the thick walls and the decoration of the Assyrians and Babylonians, combined with the hall of columns copied in stone from the Medes. Thus was created the style that has come down to modern times as the distinctive Persian architecture.

The Achæmenian Empire had an enormous effect on the religion of the ancient world. The Medes and the early Achæmenids were enthusiastic Zoroastrians, and the wide spread of the latter empire gave an opportunity for propaganda on an immense scale, causing Zoroastrianism to react strongly on every faith in civilized Asia, Europe and North Africa. The Zoroastrians were, like the Hindus, natural missionaries. Indeed, the fundamental unity of Aryan thought in the dominant populations of ancient India and Persia comes out strongly in their eclectic method of diffusing their respective creeds through



Painted specially for this work

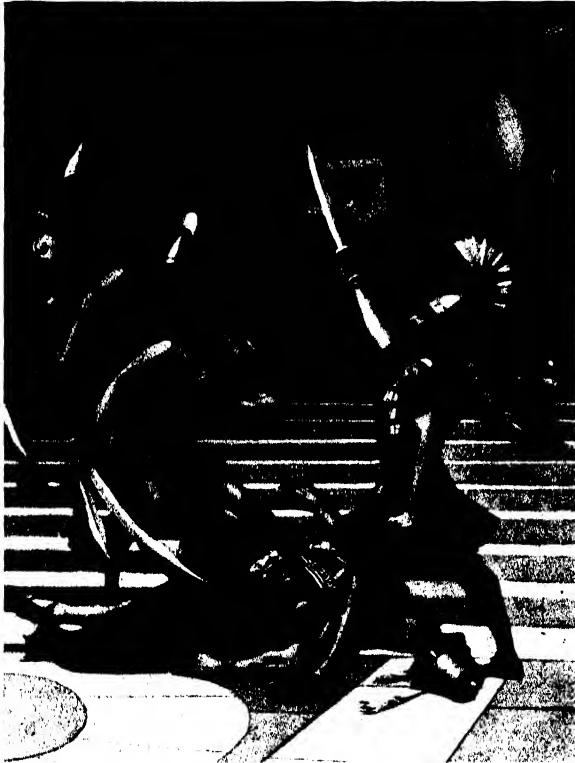
[By M. Douaston, B.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE POSTAL SERVICE IN THE DAYS OF CYRUS, 546 B.C.

Cyrus was much more than a military leader of the first rank. He was also a humane conqueror and a great administrator. Among his early administrative achievements was the establishment of mounted official messengers, who travelled from end to end of the empire "more swiftly than the crane," through many dangers in a wild mountainous country.

priestly castes. Neither opposed the foreign gods, but both absorbed them : the Indian as emanations of his own Vishnu or Siva, the Persian as servants of the Supreme Ahuramazda. But the Indian dealt with the peoples of a compact country, and so was able to dominate whilst absorbing ; whereas the Persian dealt with a world-empire, and so was ultimately himself dominated through his absorption of the more gorgeous cults of the civilizations he encountered, till even before the fall of the empire the warm idolatry of the creeds of the masses overcame the cold monistic philosophy of the cultured classes ; and Ahuramazda, the Supreme Wisdom, gave way to Mithras, the Sun-god, and Anaitis, the River-goddess, and to the Babylonian Ishtar and Belit as the goddess of generation, while even Scythian (Sāka) festivals were adopted.

Darius was no conqueror of set purpose, and though he added to his dominions Thrace and



Painted specially for this work

[By Herbert Gandy.]

THE DEATH OF BELSHAZZAR, 538 B.C.

After defeating Croesus, Cyrus turned on Babylon, then ruled by the religious antiquary Nabonidos. It was, however, resolutely defended by his eldest son Belshazzar (Bel-sarra-uzur), who is referred to in the annals as having "died" on the capture of the city, while his weakling father became a satrap (governor).

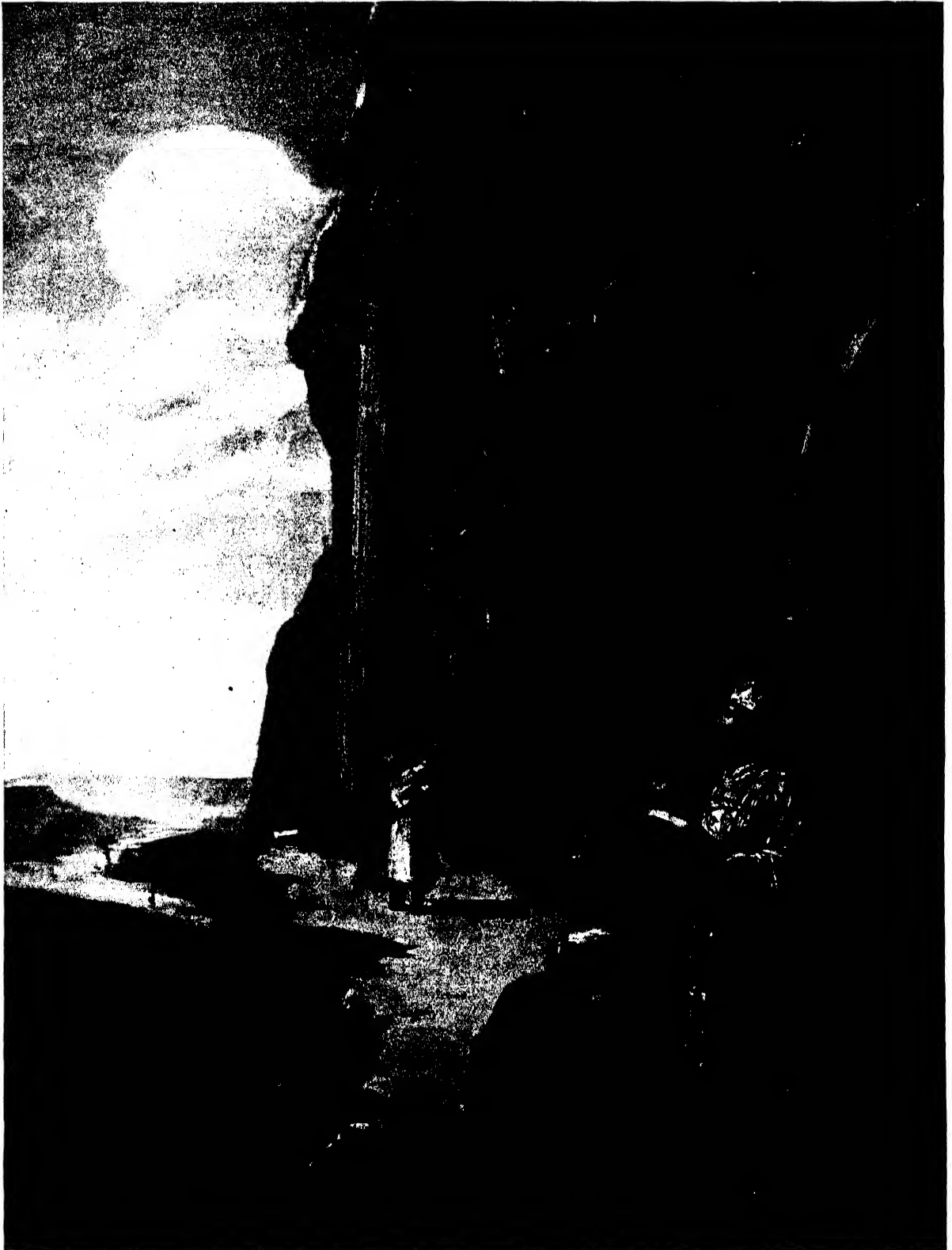
appearance as powerful and as firmly established as ever. But his victories were won by Greek armies and Greek generals fighting for an Asiatic suzerain to whom they were incontestably superior. This was the price that Greece had to pay for parochial politics and internecine rivalry between cities so dear to the Greeks, and it only wanted a united Greece, even then the dream of many, to destroy the now unwieldy and intrinsically feeble empire of the Achæmenids.

Before parting with them, it must be pointed out that their history does not imply a short period of military glory followed by a long anarchy. Their troubles were chiefly local or on the frontiers ; for the bulk of the immense area they controlled their rule meant peace and prosperity for two hundred years.

The unity of Greece came with Macedonian expansion under Philip of Macedon (359-336), which brought him into conflict with Artaxerxes III. in 340, and caused him to found the League of Corinth in

Macedonia and the Mediterranean littoral as far as Carthage (Kārta) on the west and the regions round the Indus on the east, it was by way merely of the natural expansion of a great empire in order to preserve the peace of its frontiers. Greece, with its perpetual and violent local conflicts between city and city, was a thorny question which he usually left alone, though he was defeated at Marathon in 490 ; but in the time of his successor Xerxes (Khshayārsha, Ahasuerus ; Isfandiār, 485-468), interference with its affairs led to the defeat of the Persian archers by the Greek phalanx of heavy infantry at Platæa (479), and to the proof of the superiority of the Athenian fleet at Salamis (480).

This was the turning-point in the history of the Achæmenian Empire. It began to stand still before the Greeks, an enemy superior in arms and intellect, and stagnation led to disintegration, internal rebellion, and independence of satraps. Under good-natured, weak emperors, like Xerxes, Artaxerxes I. (Artakshatra, Ardashīr ; Bahmān ; Longimanus, 465-425), and Artaxerxes II. (404-359), the empire was threatened with dissolution, while under real tyrants, like Darius II. (Nothus, the Bastard, 424-404) and Artaxerxes III. (Ochus, Uvasu, 359-338), it was galvanized into unity and even extended. Indeed, with the help of his generals, the kinsmen Mentor and Memnon of Rhodes, this last emperor actually added the whole of Greece to his dominions and brought back the empire to its pristine glory, to all



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Donovan, B.A., N.B.A.]

DARIUS SUPERINTENDING HIS INSCRIPTION AT BEHISTUN.

Darius Hystaspes, who proudly described himself as "a Persian, the son of a Persian, an Aryan of Aryan stock," was the third of the great Achaemenids (521-485 B.C.). He had a trilingual cuneiform inscription recording his exploits cut at Behistun in the Zagros Mountains, on the high road between Babylon (Baghdād) and Ecbatana (Hamadān), on the steep face of the rock five hundred feet above the plain. The deciphering of this inscription by Sir Henry Rawlinson in 1835-1845 laid the foundation of the science of Assyriology.

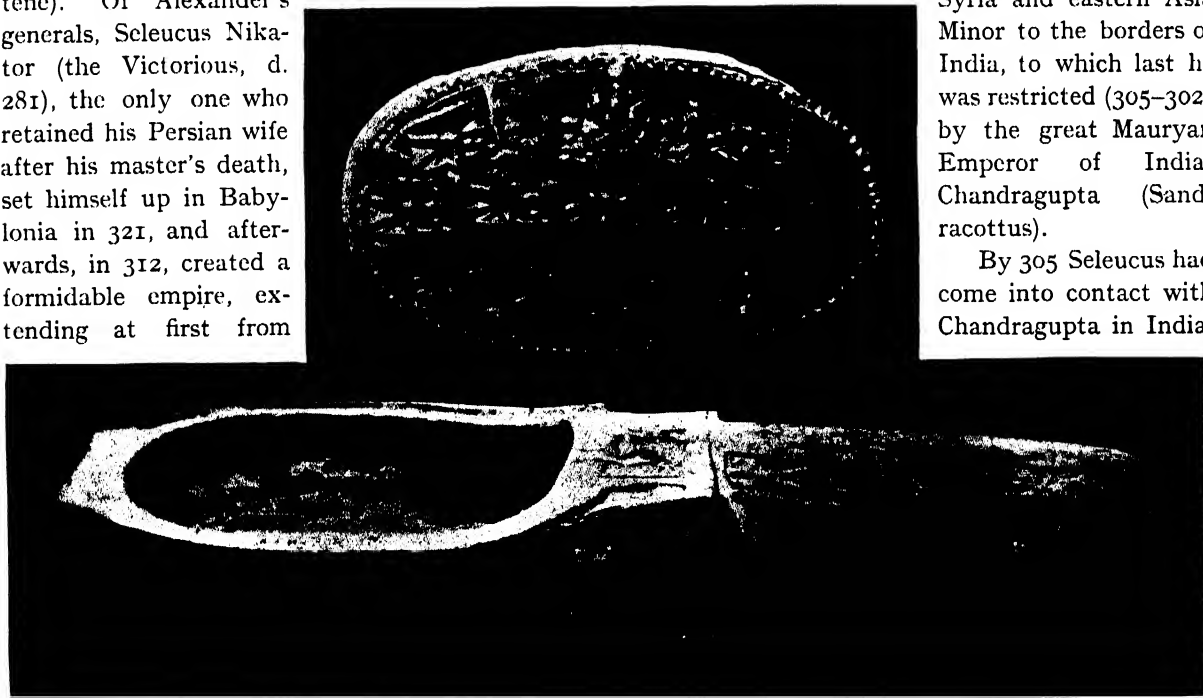
337. In 336 he was assassinated, and was succeeded by his youthful son Alexander (336-323), a Greek of the Greeks, saturated with Greek culture, and one of the most remarkable men of all time—a conscious world-conqueror for Greek civilization from the beginning, capable of carrying out his ideas, and only prevented from so doing by being cut off at thirty-three, practically at the commencement of his astonishing career. Philip's aim had been to found the "Greek State" by wresting his Greek dominions from the Persian Emperor Arses (Ar, 338-336); but Alexander at once attempted to secure the whole Achæmenian empire, the real helplessness of which before Greek invasion had been conclusively shown in the revolt of Cyrus the Younger against his brother Artaxerxes II. in 401. And after the battle of Gaugamela (Arbela, 331), and the assassination of the last Achæmenid, Darius III. (336-330), in the following year, he assumed the dress and ceremonial of the head of the Persian Empire.

Then ensued the capture of the Persian capital, the burning of the palace at Persepolis, and the over-running of the Persian empire eastwards to India. On his enforced return thence, Alexander showed his supreme political sense by adopting the doctrines and precepts of Plato and his preceptors, Aristotle and Callisthenes, so far as to be "himself the law," and to be officially proclaimed a god ruling by divine right, and by abandoning them so far as to aim at the amalgamation of all his subjects rather than treat the Asiatics as servants of the Greeks. He wielded an immense influence in Persia during his short life there, an influence that has left a deep and pervading impression on their minds, largely through his two policies of establishing autonomous Greek municipalities along his line of march, and of marrying all his officers and some ten thousand Macedonians besides to Persian wives. And thus, in the midst of plans for the conquest first of Arabia, and afterwards of the Western world, he died at Babylon on June 13th, 323 B.C.

Alexander left no heir, and after his death there followed a long struggle between his generals (*diadochi*) for possession as kings of portions of his empire, Persian satrap-dynasties becoming established only here and there on the Greek state-system. Of such was Atropates (Athropat), who established himself in northern Media, and gave his name to the modern Persian province of Azerbāijān (Aderbijān, Atropatēnē). Of Alexander's generals, Seleucus Nikator (the Victorious, d. 281), the only one who retained his Persian wife after his master's death, set himself up in Babylonia in 321, and afterwards, in 312, created a formidable empire, extending at first from

Syria and eastern Asia Minor to the borders of India, to which last he was restricted (305-302) by the great Mauryan Emperor of India, Chandragupta (Sandracottus).

By 305 Seleucus had come into contact with Chandragupta in India,



[Photo by]

A PARTHIAN COFFIN.

[Manuell & Co.

The Parthians were a race of Aryan nomads who amalgamated with the people of Khorāsān, the province they first overran in 248 B.C., and became Persianized. From 165 B.C. to 226 A.D. they ruled over Persia in succession to the Seleucid Greeks, playing a great part in general history: keeping back the Central Asian hordes for five hundred years, coming first under Greek and then under Aramaic (Syriac) influence, and thus making way for the progress both of Syriac Christianity and Zoroastrianism in the Middle East.



[By permission of the artist.]

THE BATTLE OF MARATHON, B.C. 490.

[i. Kucheyrovskii.]

Marathon was won by Miltiades in 490 B.C. against the Persian army of Darius Hystaspes by the use of Greek heavy infantry against the lighter forces of the Persians, because the ground was less suited to the latter. In 479 Pausanias won a similarly decisive victory over the army of Xerxes by a clever use of the ground in the same way. Marathon (490), Salamis (480), Plataea (479) assumed the superiority of Greek over Persian tactics both by land and sea.

and by 301 he had acquired his Syrian dominions. He was a Hellenizer on a large scale, following Alexander's plan of founding Greek autonomous cities with country districts attached thereto under the suzerainty of the empire; a policy that diffused the Greek language, commerce and civilization everywhere as far as the Indus, and created large and flourishing communities which attracted wealthy settlers, especially Jews, from foreign lands. His capitals were at first Babylon, and then Seleucia on the Tigris (near Baghdād), which he founded in order to deprive Babylon of its supremacy, and, lastly, Antioch on the Orontes, in Syria. In 300 he handed over all his dominions east of the Euphrates to his son Antiochus, who as Viceroy up to 281 "exercised in the East a very energetic and beneficial activity, which continued the work of his father and gave the new empire and the Oriental Hellenistic civilization their form." The native population acquiesced quietly and prospered, being permitted to follow unmolested their gods, Mithras, Anaitis, and the rest, in accordance with the decadent Zoroastrianism that had already set in during the rule of the late Achæmenids. In 282 Seleucus added all Asia Minor and Thrace to his dominions, and on his assassination in the next year his son succeeded to his huge empire as Antiochus I. (Sotêr, Saviour, 281-262).

But the empire had an inherent defect in the centrifugal tendencies of its numerous autonomous municipal centres, and these, combined with the attacks of outside enemies, made the lives of the Seleucid emperors one long battle for existence, with continuous unrest for the country. Revolts more or less successful were rampant everywhere. Those of Diodotus in Bactria (Balkh), in 255, and Arsaces (248-211), chief of the Parni (Iranian nomads on the Caspian Sea), in Parthia (Khorāsān), in 248, led to the establishment of the Indo-Bactrian and Parthian kingdoms on the Indian frontiers, which played so large a part in ancient Indian history. The Seleucids were no cowards and fought royally for their rights for generations, sometimes with much success, conspicuously in the case of Antiochus III. (the Great, 223-187) and Antiochus IV. (Epiphanes, 176-163), who restored the old eastern dominions to the empire. But the victories of Antiochus the Great brought him into conflict with the Romans in

190, and from that time the Seleucid Empire was doomed ; and, finally, the last attenuated remains of the Seleucids were destroyed by Rome in 72 A.D., though as regards Persia they had ceased to have any authority by 165 B.C.

In 248 B.C. Arsaces (Ashk) captured Parthia (Khorāsān) from Andragoras, an independent satrap of the Seleucids, and set up there the dynasty named after him, the Arsacids (Ashkanian, Ascanian), which began to expand in 175 under his successors, the brothers Phraates I. (Frahāt, Farhād, 175-170) and Mithridates I. (Mihrdāt, Milād, 170-138), until it succeeded nominally to the Iranian dominions of the Achæmenids from the Euphrates to the Indus. But the Arsacids never established a world-empire. They actually governed, through satraps, only a "strip of land, stretching from the Euphrates and north Babylonia through southern Media and Parthia as far as Arachosia (North-western

Afghānistān), and following the course of the great trade-route which from time immemorial had carried the traffic between the west of Asia and India." The rest of the empire consisted of vassal states, whose condition of dependence varied greatly from time to time. From first to last the power of the Arsacids was essentially weak politically, and their dominion "was peculiarly a chance formation—a state which had come into existence through fortuitous external circumstances, and had no firm foundation within itself, nor any intrinsic *raison d'être*." In its later period it was externally always on the defensive, while internally there was continuous civil war and strife.

In the days of the early Parthian aggression, the most successful rulers and empire-makers were Mithridates II. (the Great, 124-88) and Phraates III. (70-57), who had some right to the proud Arsacid title of King



Photo by]

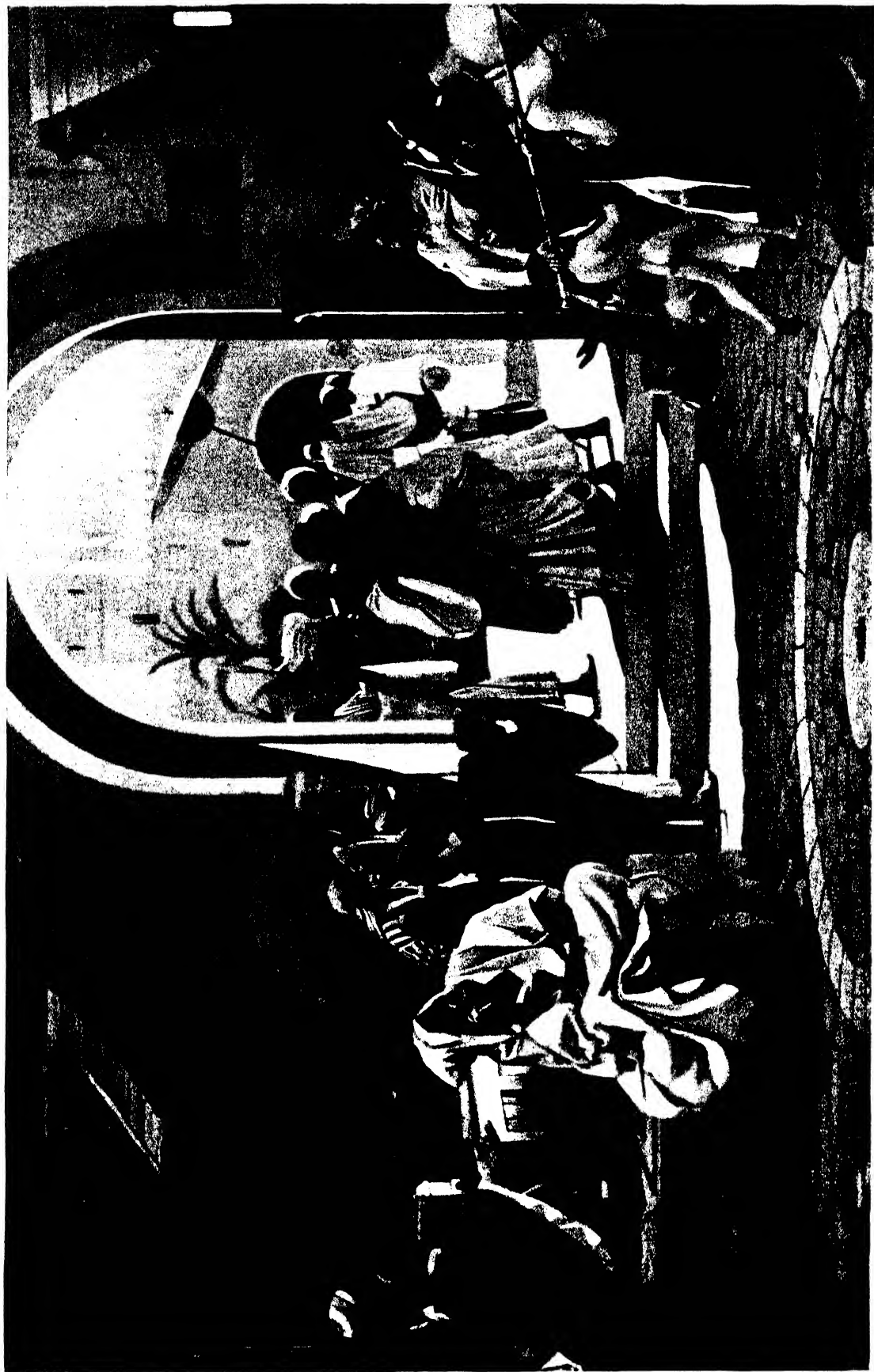
MITHRAS SLAYING THE SACRED BULL.

[Mansell & Co.

The cult of Mithras, the Persian god of the unconquered sun, was the most ancient of Aryan faiths. It was overshadowed by the cold Zoroastrian philosophy in the first millennium B.C. but never destroyed. Its warmth and life made it in its turn overshadow Zoroastrianism and spread so far in the Roman world as to make it the greatest antagonist of Christianity till the fourth century A.D.

of Kings (Shāhanshāh) ; but on the whole the dynasty led a chequered existence, harried and menaced by many neighbouring enemies—Seleucids, Armenians, Bactrians, Scythians (Sāka), Yue-chi (Mongolian nomads), Alans (Ossets, Iranians of South Russia), and Kushāns of Northern India. In 92 B.C. Mithridates the Great came into contact with the Romans, and his successors were thereafter at constant war with them owing to encroachments on the part of the Romans, which were the result of their inheritance of Alexander's empire.

In spite of their political weakness, the Arsacids were no mean enemy, as was proved by the fate of Crassus at Carrhæ (Harrān) in 53 B.C., at the hands of Orodes I. (Huranda), the defeat of Mark Antony by Phraates IV. in 36, and the raids into Syria at that time. All these things, together with the policy of Augustus of keeping on friendly terms with the Arsacids contrary to public expectation, and the successes of Vologeses I. (Vulgash, Balgash, 51-77 A.D.), who secured the crowning of his brother Tiridates as King of Armenia by Nero in 66 A.D., made the Parthians loom large in Roman eyes. After



By permission of Ernest Norman.]

[Photo by Dixon & Sons.]

MORDECAI REFUSING TO BOW BEFORE HAMAN.

The memory of Esther and Mordecai is still green in Persia, and their "tombs" are shown to visitors at Hamadân, the ancient Ecbatana (Hangamadana) of the Medes and Persians. Identifying Esther as a queen of the fourth Achaemenian Emperor Khshayārsha, whose name has come down to us in various languages under the very different forms of Xerxes, Ahasuerus and Isfandiār, the date of her story lies between 485 and 468 B.C., but there are many historical difficulties as to details.



Painted specially for this work.

By Herbert Gandy.

THAÏS PERSUADING ALEXANDER TO BURN PERSEPOLIS, B.C. 330.

The burning, it is said at the instance of his mistress Thaïs, of Persepolis, the splendid mother-city of the Achæmenids, was a blot on the career of Alexander which he always regretted. It must be remembered, however, that there were strong political reasons for making it clear to the public that the power of the successors of Cyrus was destroyed for ever.

administratively an infinitely weaker weapon for the rulers. On the other hand, as the Roman leaders found out, it was difficult for even the best infantry of the day to hold their own against the Parthian squadrons.

The great service of the Arsacids and their tribesmen to civilization was that they acted as a buffer between the ancient Hellenism and the barbaric hordes of Central and Northern Asia, and kept back the inroads of the latter on the civilized world for half a millennium. Themselves nomads on the borders of a settled civilization, they soon amalgamated with the peasantry of the country which they first overran, adopting the dress, manners and religion (Zoroastrianism) of the Parthians proper. As rulers, the Arsacids perpetuated the traditions of the Achæmenids to the full, and so completely Persianized did they become, that Firdūsī (941-1020 A.D.) applied the title of their magnates, Pahlavān (the Parthians), to the heroes of ancient Persian legend. Pahlav, through Pārthava, means "Parthian," whence also the current form of the Persian language, written in an incompatible Aramaic (Syriac) script, was

Vologeses I. there followed seventy years of internal confusion and further Roman aggressions under Trajan in 113-117, Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verres in 162-164, Septimius Severus in 197-202, and Caracalla in 216. These wars, however, had no material effect on the Parthian Empire, and they might have been continued indefinitely, had not another Cyrus arisen in Persia proper in the person of Ardashir, the Sasanian, who put an end to Artabanus IV. (Artavān) and the Parthian Empire in 226.

The famous Parthian tactics, which so impressed the Romans during their wars with the Arsacids, arose out of military habits that were essentially Persian (Iranian), combined with those of a nomad people. The Arsacid forces consisted of armed horsemen, chiefly slaves and servants of magnates, trained only for war, excellently practised in the use of the bow and javelin, but useless at close quarters. This led them, when attacked, to feign confusion and flight, only to reform rapidly and attack in their turn, as soon as the enemy had been induced to break formation. For infantry they had little use. The Parthian army, while following the Persian use of the bow and long-distance fighting, thus differed fundamentally from the disciplined, enthusiastic peasantry of the Achæmenids, and was politically and

called Pahlavī (Pehlevī, Parthian). Politically and administratively, the earlier Arsacids were, however, thoroughly Hellenized in institutions, currency and commerce. Some of them spoke good Greek, and they set up their capital, Ctesiphon (Madāīn, near Baghdād) on the Tigris, opposite Seleucia. Nevertheless, the effect of their suzerainty was to create a reaction against Hellenism, because Greek culture and the Greek mode of life were inherently unsuited to a rough Oriental people of the Parthian and Central Asian type. The legends on the coinage gradually changed from Greek to Aramaic, along with a steady deterioration in artistic form from generation to generation. This deterioration marked the decadence of Hellenic influence, until the destruction of Seleucia by the Romans in 164 A.D. sealed the fate of Hellenism in Irān, and the Greek language finally gave way to Aramaic. This was greatly assisted by the progress of Christianity, which introduced to Orientals Aramaic (Syriac) literature in the dialect of Edessa (Urhōi, Urfa), where Abgar IX. (179-214), the last King of Osroēnē in Mesopotamia, became a convert. Thenceforward Greek culture and literature were available to Irān only in an Aramaic dress, and Iranian culture in the form of the Pahlavī *Avesta* gathered strength.

Ardashīr (Artaxerxes, Artaxares, 212-241), a great personality, was the son of Pāpak, a descendant of Sāsān, whence the patronymic Sasanid. He was King of Istakhr, the district round Persepolis, a Persian of the Persians, and a zealous Zoroastrian. He soon began to extend his rule beyond his native district, which brought him into conflict with the Parthian Artabanus IV., and led him, after much fighting with varying success, to practically exterminate the Arsacids, to whose imperial power he succeeded. Thereafter the Arsacid Empire became that of the Sasanids seated at Ctesiphon, near Baghdād; but the latter differed greatly from its predecessor, in that it was as strictly national as the empire of the Achæmenids and essentially Persian. Taking advantage of the weakening of the Roman



[Painted specially for this work]

[By H. M. Burton.]

ALEXANDER IN THE ARACHOSIAN MOUNTAINS (AFGHANISTAN).

Alexander from the first set out to conquer the whole empire of the Achæmenids, and after the death of the last of them, Darius Codomannus, in the Persian highlands, he proceeded to the Eastern Provinces, now Seistan and Afghanistan, reaching the Kabul Valley under many difficulties in the winter of 329 B.C.

imperial authority which had set in, Ardashīr and his son Shāpur (Sapor, 241-272) constantly raided into Asia Minor, and had many conflicts with the Roman armies. Here, too, the fortunes of both sides varied greatly, and included, on the one hand, the overthrow of Valerian at Edessa in 260, and, on the other hand, the capture of Shāpur's harem in 263-265, which he never recovered. But in the end, with the exception of the troubled conquest of Armenia under Bahrām Gor in 430, neither Ardashīr nor any of his earlier successors ever permanently got further west than the Euphrates, largely owing to the armies being, like those of the Arsacids, composed of levies raised by local magnates, and thus incapable of prolonged military effort controlled by a central authority, though they were imbued with a strong national spirit.

The duel between Roman and Sasanian dragged on in the same fashion, until in the fourth century it turned into a struggle between Christianity and Zoroastrianism on the general Christianization of the Roman Empire, and became thus a matter of the first importance in the evolution of the Iranian people. Equally important to the people was the power of the nobility (*pahlavān*) inherited from the Arsacid times, which was so great that the magnates made the kings and constantly controlled their authority. This led the kings to stand up to the nobles and protect the commonalty, bringing about a "fairly orderly Empire with an excellent legal administration."

The old decadent Zoroastrianism of the Achæmenids and Arsacids had been a tolerant while a missionary faith, and under Achæmenian influence it had penetrated far into the Roman Empire, impressing confronted with Christianity, equally committed to the uprooting of heresy, and furnished with a missionary enterprise that permeated Irān and the countries much further east, the two forms of creed met as mortal enemies. There were, of course, from time to time well-meant attempts at amalgamation on the tolerant and intelligible ground of the fundamental truth of all forms of religion, such as the efforts of the Manichæans (215-277), whose speculations in the eyes of the adherents of both the contending faiths were accordingly heresies to be ruthlessly suppressed by the orthodox.

The Sasanid kings were perforce champions of Mazdaism, and it was serious danger from Syrian (Surayi) Christianity that induced Shāpur II. (310-379) to undertake the completion of the task, begun by the Arsacid Vologeses III. and continued by Ardashīr, of collecting together in the *Avesta* the old orthodox doctrines and texts. The language used for the purpose was Pahlavī, and in addition a considerable Pahlavī general literature was created. The importance of this development of local politics



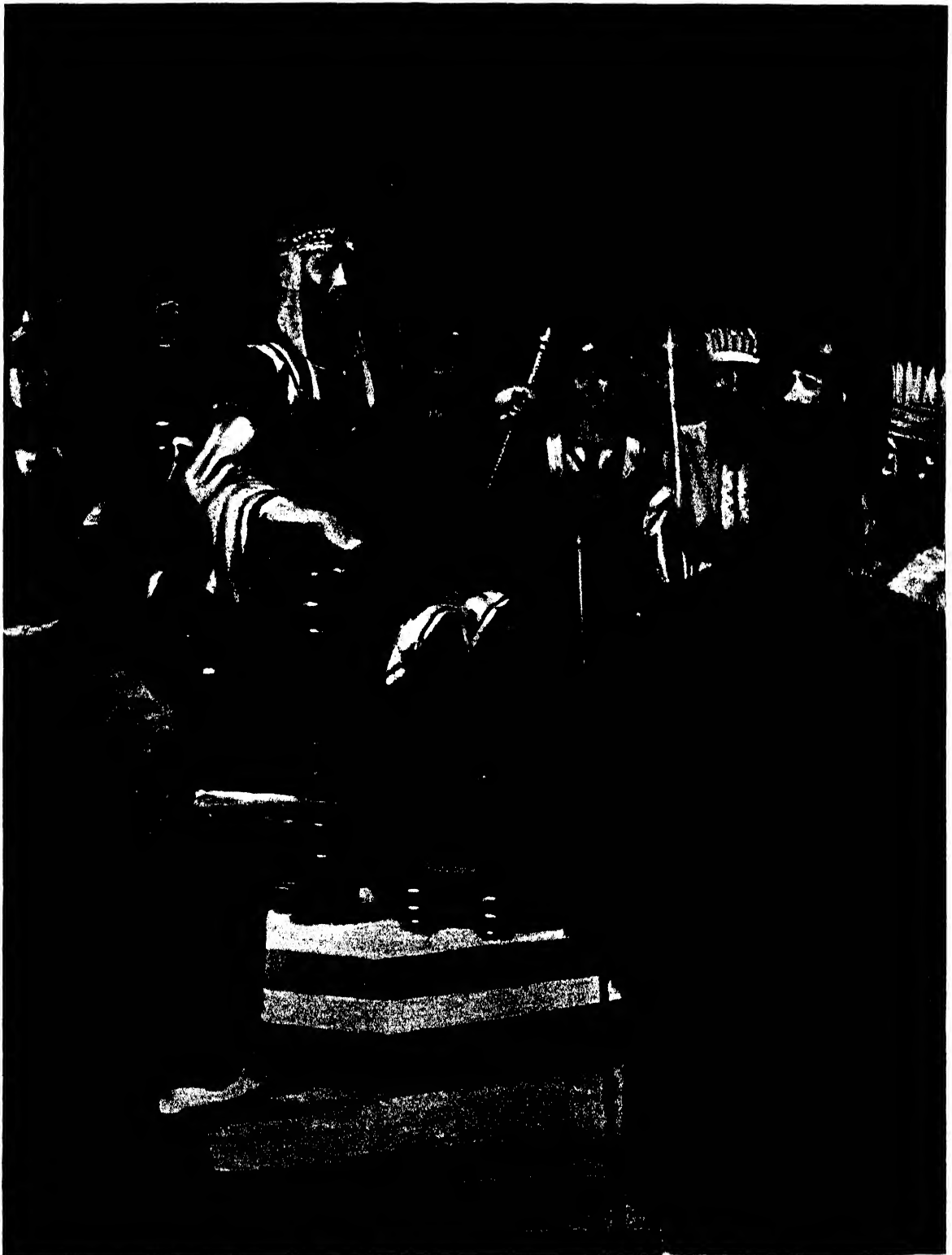
Painted specially

[By Herbert Gandy.]

PARTHIANS HOLDING UP THE HEAD OF THE ROMAN TRIUMVIR CRASSUS TO RIDICULE.
B.C. 53.

Marius Licinius Crassus was with Pompey and Caesar the third in the First Triumvirate in 60 B.C. In 55 he obtained the consulate of Syria for five years and determined to make himself master of Parthia, but was defeated by the Parthian general Surenas at Carrhæ (Harrân) in 53 B.C., his head being sent to the King Orodes I.

itself so deeply on the Roman mind that Mithras, as the Sol Invictus, was in a fair way of becoming the chief god of the Cæsars. But under the guidance of a powerful priesthood, led by Mobeds (*mūbid*, *magu-pat*, chief magian), the whole tenor of the faith of Ardashīr and his successors was towards an exclusively national religion, intolerant of all else, divinely commanded to combat "the heathen," the unbeliever, and the heretic within the imperial border. Persecution, therefore, of all those who did not follow Mazdaism, the current still further modified form of the religion of Zoroaster, nor acknowledged the supremacy of Ahuramazda as the national God, at once arose. Indeed, the new Persian Empire knew no compromise in matters of faith, and so, when it was



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopoulos.]

THE PARTHIAN PHRAATES III. CROWNED "KING OF KINGS" AND "GOD" AT SELEUCIA, B.C. 64.

The Parthian nomad chief Arsaces founded the Arsacid Dynasty (afterwards of Persia) in Khorān in B.C. 428. It began to expand under Phraates I. and Mithridates I. (175-138) and greatly under Mithridates II. the Great (124-88), who took Seleucia (Babylon), overthrew the Seleucid Empire and came into contact with Rome B.C. 92. His son Phraates III. (70-57) had a chequered war with Pompey, and in B.C. 64 crowned himself with the Parthian title of "King of Kings" (Shāhanshāh) and the Greek title of "god" (theos).

to the culture of the Eastern world can hardly be overrated, for it permanently prevented the eastward spread of Christianity as a national religion.

The strong Mazdaist policy of Shāpur II. and the Persian leaders led naturally to a prolonged external conflict with the Christianized Romans, while internally the magnates placed ruler after ruler on the uneasy throne of the Sasanids. It was also a dangerous throne, for only too many of the noble-made



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Dovaston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

VOLOGESES III. SUPERINTENDS THE COLLECTION OF THE PAHLAVI
AVESTA, 160 A.D.

The Parthian rulers became so Persianized as to impose a corruption of their own name, Pahlavi, on the current form of the Persian language. They rigidly upheld Persian tradition and cult, and Vologeses III. (147-191 A.D.) commenced to collect the scattered remains of the *Zend Avesta* into the Pahlavi *Avesta*, the existing form of the Zoroastrian Scriptures. This collection was completed by the Sasanids, Ardashir and Shāpur II. (310-379), a most important act historically, because it prevented the eastward spread of Christianity.

of the Christian Church of the Empire, with its headquarters at Seleucia (Ctesiphon).

Anūshīrwān (the Blessed) was, outside his religious reputation, a great monarch and the father of the equitable system of taxation adopted later on by the Arab rulers. He had also in life a very high, though totally undeserved, character for philosophic enlightenment, which has been popularly ascribed to him ever since. As a military leader he worried Asia Minor and Syria, established a suzerainty over Yemen (Arabia), and overran Baktria, thus extending the Sasanian Empire far beyond the old Arsacid boundaries. Towards the latter part of his life he became involved in wars with the Turkish Khāns,

emperors met with violent deaths. The Sasanid princes thus raised to the supreme position have become known to native Persian legend and story as heroes or objects of detestation according to the support or opposition they gave to the national religion. In this way, the competent Yazdajird I. (399-420) has become "the sinner" for tolerating the Christians, and Bahrām Gor (420-438) undeservedly a great hero for the opposite policy. So, too, the vigorous Kubād I. (488-531) is to the Persians the very reverse of a hero, because of the support he gave to the Mazdakīs, a communistic sect, whose levelling and free-love doctrines he found useful in repressing the power of the magnates, while Anūshīrwān (Naushīrwān, also Khusrū, Chosroēs I., 531-579), the restorer of the orthodox doctrine, is a hero indeed.

The undoing of his son, Hormazd IV. (579-590), was his care of his Christian subjects. In the last half of the fifth century the Ephthalites (Haitab), or White Huns of Central Asia, not only harassed, but, as in India, largely dominated the Persian rulers. The troubles they created had, under Perōz (451-484), the curious results, in 483, of raising the Nestorians (Surayi), whose doctrines were less objectionable in Persian eyes than those of the other Christians, to the position

who in 545 had risen as a new power in the East to harass alike the Sasanids and the Romans. His grandson, Khusrū Parvez (the Conqueror, Chosroēs II., 590–628), though not a general of the highest order, gained an immense reputation as a military commander, and was the subject of the most extraordinary and romantic vicissitudes of fortune during his troubled career. Between 608 and 619 he overran Asia Minor, Syria and Palestine, carried off the Holy Cross from Jerusalem to Ctesiphon, and occupied Egypt. But the great Emperor Heraclius, between 623 and 628, recovered everything, including the Cross, and reached the Tigris provinces. In the end Khusrū was deposed and killed by his son, Kubād II., in 628. Then ensued chaos.

The long centuries of struggle between Roman and



A PORTRAIT OF DARIUS THE GREAT.
521-485 B.C.

"The Great King," with state umbrella and attendant, as carved on one of the door-jambs of the palace of Darius I. at Persepolis. The original bears considerable traces of colour.

Persian, especially the last of them, had so weakened both empires as to give an opportunity to a new enemy to both, the Arab, with his then novel religion of Islām. As early as 633, only eleven years after the commencement of the Muhammadan era (*hijra*, *hegira*), the Arabs entered Persian territory, and the decisive battles of Kadisiya (Cadesia), on the Euphrates, in 637 and of Nihāvand (Nehavend), in Media, in 641, gave them dominion over the Sasanids, and by 651 they had overrun the whole empire of Yazdajird III. (632–651), the last puppet of the Persian magnates, "on whom had rested the god-given Royal glory of Ormuzd." With the empire fell its religion, slowly and quietly disappearing before Islām, until it survived only as an insignificant sect in Irān (Gabr, Jabr, and also Guebre and other corruptions)



RUINS OF CTESIPHON ON THE TIGRIS.

Seleucus Nikator (312–281 B.C.), the Greek successor of Alexander, founded Seleucia on the Tigris as a foil to Babylon on the Euphrates, which had been the Imperial capital for three thousand years. In 37 B.C. the Parthian Phraates IV. founded Ctesiphon (Madāin) on the bank opposite Seleucia because that polished city was not suited to his rougher people. In 763 A.D. the Abbāsid Caliph Al-Mansūr founded Baghdād, fifteen miles from Ctesiphon. The immense ruins of Ctesiphon are distinguished by huge barrel vaulting.

and as the religion of the small but remarkable community of the Pārsīs in India, which has risen to much importance there under British rule.

The Sasanids were builders of great palaces and restorers of old cities, to which they gave new and now forgotten names: Persepolis (Istakhr, Astakhr, and now Hājiābād), Ctesiphon (Madāin), Seleucia, Susa, Gūr (Firōzābād), Sauristān (Shīrāz) and Nishāpūr. Their architecture followed that of the Achæmenids, through the Parthians, with Græco-Syrian innovations, and was important as the model of the succeeding Caliphs. Like their predecessors, the Parthians had been energetic builders, and had carried on the Babylonian and Assyrian traditions, which, indeed, as far as the lofty platform base is concerned, have never died out in the East; but they improved on them by introducing a fine ashlar masonry borrowed from the Greeks. This the Sasanids changed to rubble with thick mortar joints and covered with stucco, borrowed from the Romans, while they retained the barrel vault of their Asiatic



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Dobson, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

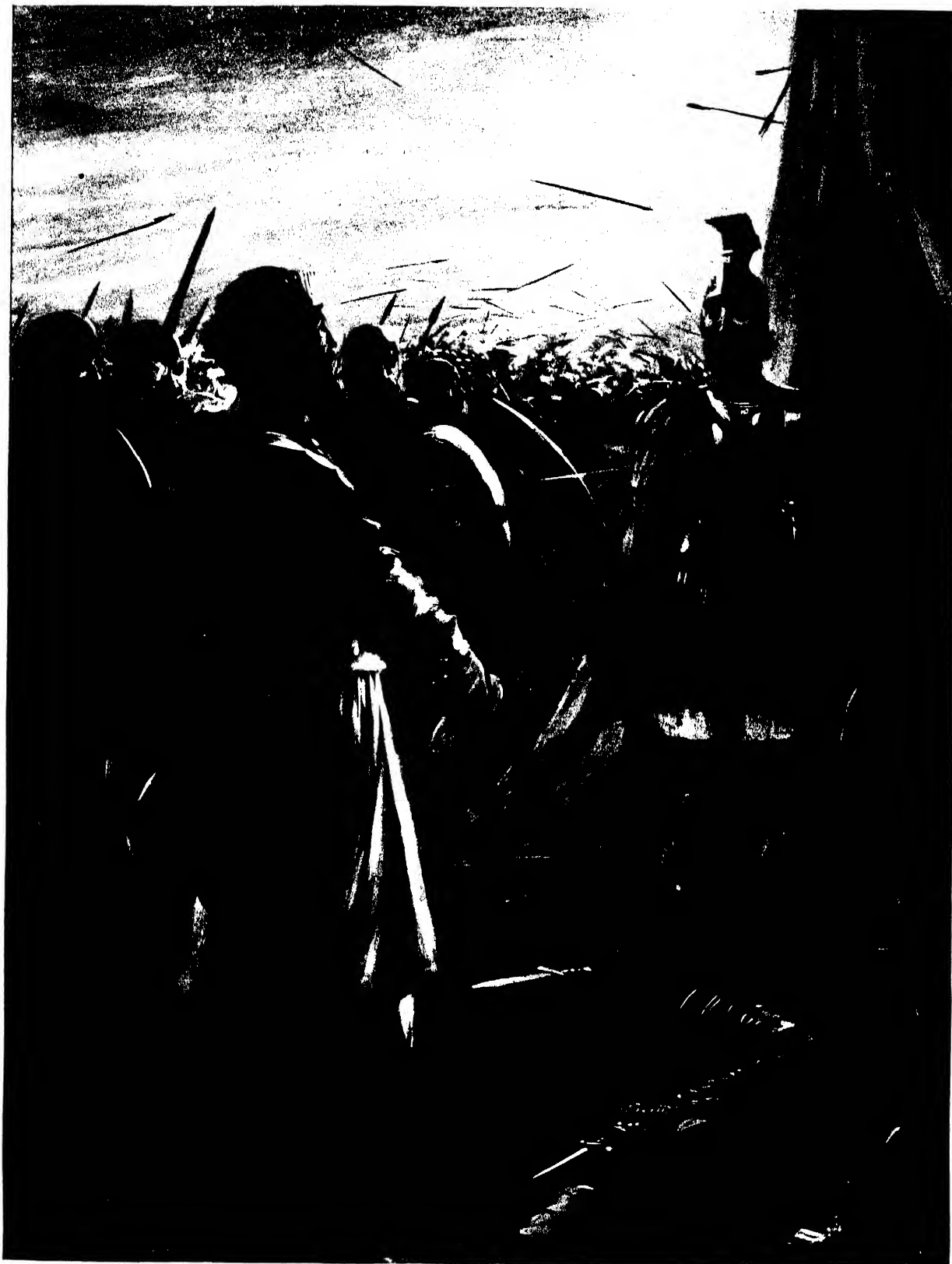
PERSECUTION OF CHRISTIANS UNDER SHAPUR II. (310-379 A.D.).

In the Sasanian times there was a complete mutual intolerance between Zoroastrian and Christian (Syrian), and the Emperors were perforce staunch supporters of the national religion, a debased Zoroastrianism. Some, however, like Yazdajird I. (399-420) and Hormazd (579-590), were tolerant, while others, like Shāpur II. and Anūshirwān (Chosroēs I., 531-579), were the reverse.

predecessors. Their domes were faulty with irregular pendentives, as they did not well understand that kind of construction; but in the matter of semi-domes and piers to resist the thrust of vaults they built better than the Romans, though the vaults themselves were elliptical and were built without being centred. The decoration was profuse and copied from that used for Assyrian, Achæmenian and Roman buildings without a proper appreciation of the meaning.

Under the Sasanids there was a general renaissance of native industrial art, which had so high a reputation and so wide a distribution that it influenced the art of the whole ancient world, both Western and Eastern.

With the fall of the Sasanids the Persians lost their importance as an individual nation, and found themselves under the heel of foreign rulers, who respected neither their institutions nor their religion. They were naturally first under the Caliphate, or rule of the Caliphs (*Khalīfa*, successor of Muhammad), reigning successively at Medīna in Arabia till 661, at Damascus in Syria (Ommayyads) till 750, and at



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Bagdatopulus.

THE CAPTURE OF THE EMPEROR VALERIAN BY SHAPUR I., 260 A.D.

Publius Licinius Valerianus was a Roman noble of great ability who was chosen Emperor in 253 A.D. at the age of sixty-three. He was too old for a campaign against so redoubtable a monarch as the Sasanid Shapur I. (241-273), and in 260 he was captured in Mesopotamia. He was subjected to great indignities both before and after death in captivity

Baghdād (Ctesiphon) on the Euphrates (Abbāsids) thereafter. The cardinal fact of the confused times of the early Caliphate in relation to the Persians is that they came under the influence of the Shī'a form of Islām, which recognizes as Khalīfa only a direct descendant of the Prophet, who is also for them an Imām, or infallible leader, and a Mahdī, or guide of life. The Shi'as (Shiites) are followers of the enthusiast Ali—Imām Ali as they call him—son-in-law of Muhammad himself and the last of the Medīna Caliphs (656–661); and the variety of Muhammadanism they constitute, which is peculiarly Persian in development, is for practical purposes the ritualistic division of Islām, in contradistinction to the severer belief of the Sunnis, who make up the bulk of Muhammadan population elsewhere. The tenets of the Shī'as arose largely out of Persian politics in the early days of the rule of the Caliphs, and the Shī'a ritualism out of the hereditary love of the Persians for pomp and ceremony.



Painted specially for this work

[By Ambrose Dudley.]

DEFEAT OF THE WHITE HUNS BY ANUSHIRWAN IN 560 A.D.

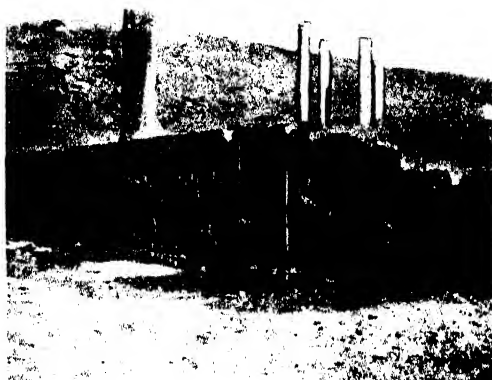
The Ephthalites (Haitab), or White Huns, appeared in Persia in 454 A.D. in the days of Yazdajird II. (438–457), and for a while, as in India, they largely dominated the Sasanid rulers, until Anūshirwān (Chosroēs I.) allied himself with the Turks, then first appearing on the historical scene, and wiped them out.

The rôle of the Persians under the Caliphate was to stir up rebellion everywhere, and to interfere with the Caliphs as much as possible. It was a period of perpetual struggle, and of governors who became independent and set up dynasties more or less ephemeral in every convenient locality. In the course of the ever-changing fortunes of the period the Arab element in the government steadily diminished in influence, and by the time that the increasing strife of centuries made Persia an easy prey to the next foreign aggressor, the famous Mahmūd of Ghaznī in Afghānistān (997–1030), it had mostly disappeared. Of the many local dynasties of the day, the Persian Būyīs (Buwayhis, Dailāmis, 930–1055), claiming Sasanian descent, obtained Baghdād itself for a time, and ruled from the Persian Gulf to the Caspian Sea until overthrown by the Ghaznavī Mahmūd. In the East the cultivated Persian Sāmānis of Samarkand and Bokhārā (837–1005), the promoters of Persian literature and distributors of Persian currency and products far into Europe, wielded undisputed authority until weakened by the Ghaznavīs and

finally destroyed by the Turks under Ilék Khān, who in his turn had to give way to Mahmūd of Ghaznī in 1016.

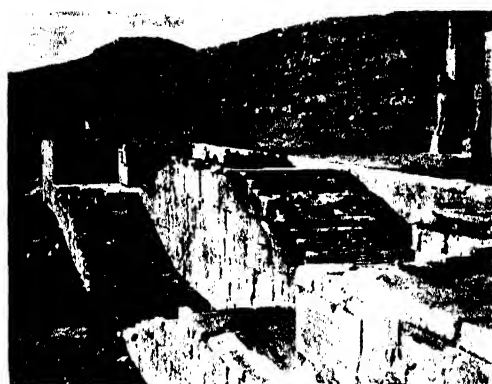
This remarkable man, ruthless raider, magnificent liver and builder, and great patron of letters, was a descendant of Turkomān "noble" slaves in the military service of the Sāmānīs, who had carved out a kingdom for themselves in Afghānistān and the Panjāb. In the short space of thirty-three years his numerous raids had spread terror far into India, and his conquests westwards covered all Persia to the Caspian Sea and the Sāmānī dominions in Samarkand and Bokhārā, then "the centre of science." He made his capital, Ghaznī, the wealthiest and most splendid Oriental city of the time, and established a dynasty that lasted on there and at Lahore in the Panjāb till 1187, when it was ousted by the equally celebrated conqueror Muhammad Ghōrī (*alias* Sultān Shahābu'ddīn and Mu'iz-zu'ddīn), also a Turkomān of Afghānistān. But in Persia the Ghaznavī power was overthrown as early as 1037 by the Seljūks soon after Mahmūd's death in 1030.

Seljūk was the name of several prominent orthodox Muhammadan (Sunnī) dynasties flourishing in parts of Asia and Asia Minor from 1037 nominally to 1315, and sprung from the same ruling family in the Ghuzz tribe of Turks (Ouzoi). Turks from Central Asia, hardly distinguishable ethnologically from



HALL OF XERXES.

About forty miles north-east of Shirāz are situated on a high terrace the magnificent remains of the palaces of the Achaemenids at Persepolis, just as they were—



THE GREAT STAIRCASE.

—destroyed by Alexander. Here are the splendid tombs of Darius, Xerxes, Artaxerxes and Darius II. Cyrus was buried in his own city of Pasargadae (Murghāb).



PORCH OF XERXES.

—The ruins are now known as Naksh-e-Rustan (the Pictures of Rustan) from the belief that the sculptures represent the national mythical hero.

Tātārs and Mongols, first appeared in Persia as far back as 560, when the Sasanid Anūshīrwān concluded an alliance with them against the White Huns (Ephthalites), only to find them allied against him in the war with Rome which broke out later on. By the ninth century they began to take a leading part in the internal wars and administration of the Caliphs, and in the tenth the Caliphate fell completely under the power of the Turkish officials of various tribes. By the time the Seljūks appeared in Persia as a ruling race the Caliphs had become mere puppets, reigning at the pleasure of Turkish viziers (*wazīrs*, ministers).

Between 1037 and 1055 the Seljūks obtained possession of all Persia and of Baghdād itself, where they ruled under the nominal suzerainty of the Caliphs. Westwards they extended their authority through Asia Minor to the Hellespont, bringing themselves into violent conflict with the Byzantine Empire, and eastwards they expanded into India and Central Asia. Thus by the establishment of the Seljūkian Empire Persia once more came under the rule of a single power, at any rate nominally. But this fresh empire, like that of the Arsacids, was essentially military in its organization, with only a precarious authority over its officers, whence was confirmed the curious custom, already started by the Sāmānīs and much followed thereafter in the East, of

entrusting the command of armies to Turkish slaves. After the three great Seljūkian rulers, Toghrul Beg, Alp Arslān and Malik Shāh (1037-1092), with his renowned Minister Nizāmu'l-Mulk, assassinated in 1092, there followed civil wars for the throne resulting in branches of the family establishing separate dynasties, whose nominal heads, like the Caliphs before them, more and more came to reign by permission of Turkish regents (*atabegs*). In such circumstances independent dynasties were naturally set



Painted specially for this work

[By Herbert Gandhy.]

KHUSRU AND SHIRIN.

One of the romantic careers of Persian history is that of Khusrū Parvēz (the Conqueror, Chosroēs II., 590-628). Between 608 and 619 he overran Asia Minor, Syria and Palestine, carried off the Holy Cross from Jerusalem to Ctesiphon, and occupied Egypt. But the great Emperor Heraclius, between 623 and 628, recovered everything, including the Cross. In the end Khusrū was deposed and killed by his son Kubād II. He was the hero also of a great love-tale, Khusrū and Shirin, which in the hands of the classic poet Nizami (1141-1203) founded a school of Persian romantic verse.

up in many places. Of these the Salghārīs of Fārs (Persis, 1148-1260), founded by the descendants of a Turkistān general Salghār, under Toghrul Beg (1037-1063), became important. There also arose the Central Asian Empire of the Shāhs of Khwārizm (Kharezm, Chorasmia, now Khīva, 1077-1231), sprung from a Ghaznavī Turkish slave and cupbearer to the Seljūk Malik Shāh (1071-1092), who for a brief period in the reigns of the Shāhs Tukush (1172-1199) and Alāu'ddīn Muhammad (1199-1220), brought practically all the eastern (Persian) dominion of the Seljūks under their sway. Like the Sāmānīs, both the Seljūks and the Shāhs of Khwārizm were highly cultured and great distributors of Persian industrial art and commerce all over the world.

Meanwhile there had arisen yet another Central Asian enemy in the shape of the Shāmanist (spirit-worshipping) "heathen" Mongol (Mughal) hordes, raised into far the most formidable fighting instrument of the day by Chinghiz (Jenghiz, Changēz) Khān, one of the greatest conquerors that the world has ever seen, who before his death had stretched the Mongol dominions from the Dnieper to the Yellow Sea. His son and successor, Ogodai Khān (Ogdai, 1227-1241), put an end to the Khwārizmian Shāhs in 1231, while Persia was ravaged by another son, Tulē Khān (Tuluī), who became

its actual governor. He was succeeded by his son, Hulāgu Khān (Hulāku, 1256-1265), who founded a nominally Viceregal (Ilkhānī) Dynasty, the Ilkhāns of Persia, in 1256. "Henceforward Persia became after six hundred years of spasmodic government a national unit." In 1255 Hulāgu destroyed the many petty states that arose on the fall of the Khwārizmian power, and did a service to humanity by the destruction of Alāmūt, the Eagle's Nest of the Assassins (Hashīshīn, Isma'īliya, 1090-1255), the fanatical dynasty formed in Persia and Syria by Hasan Sabbāh, an Isma'īlī Shī'a of Khorāsān,

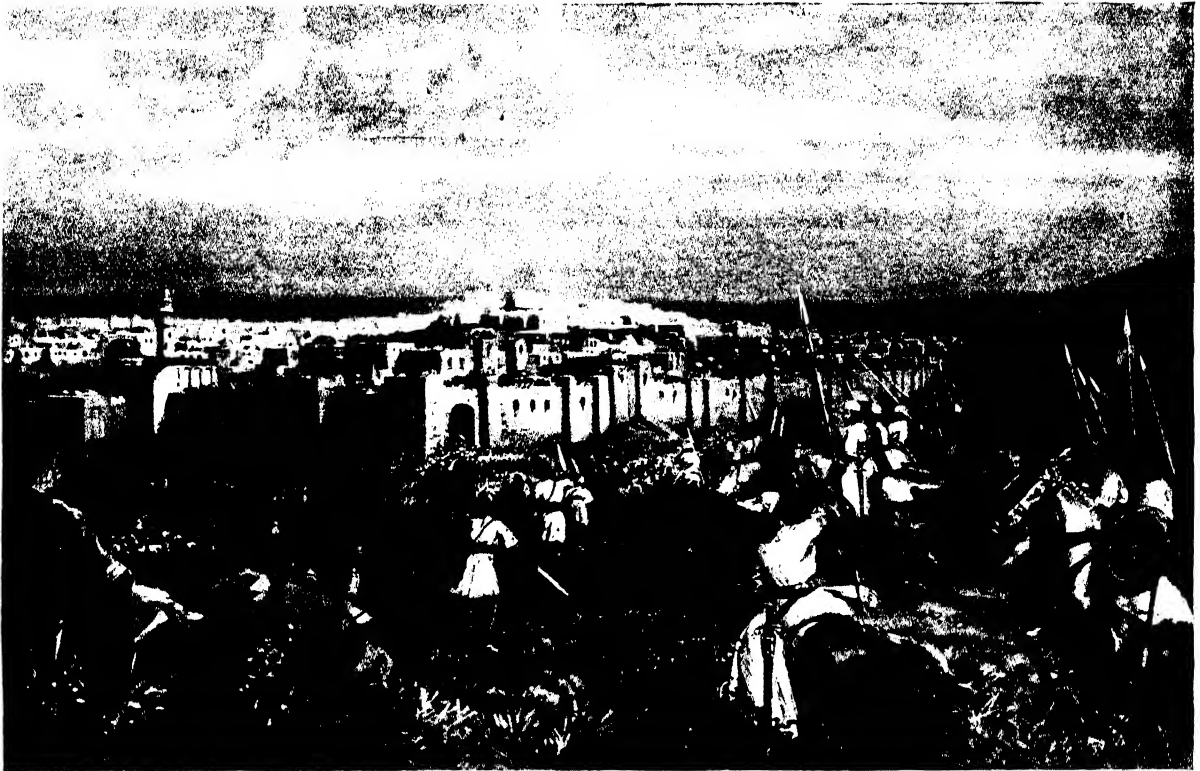


Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Baydapius]

THE ETHIOPIANS DEFEATED BY CHOSROES I. IN 562.

Anūshīrwān or Naushīrwān (Chosrōs I.) is in Oriental story the most famous of the Sasanian kings because of his Zoroastrian (orthodox) zeal and his administrative and judicial reforms. He was also a great warrior-king and overran Yemen (Arabia), decisively defeating the Ethiopians (Abyssinians), who then held it. Thereafter Yemen was nominally a Persian province till the destruction of the Arab Caliphate in 1258.



Painted specially for this work

[By A. Kemp Tebbly.]

THE CAPTURE OF JERUSALEM BY THE PERSIAN GENERAL SHAHRBARAZ IN 614 A.D.

In 614 the Persian general, Shahrbaraz, captured Jerusalem in the course of the triumphant progress of the Sasanian monarch, Khusrū Parvēz (Chosroēs II.) through Western Asia. The Holy Cross was carried off in triumph to the Persian capital, Ctesiphon on the Tigris, where it remained until it was recovered by Heraclius in 628 and brought back to Jerusalem with great pomp in 629.

whose policy of organized secret murder of opponents made them renowned throughout Europe and Asia, and gave a name to this particular form of crime which has lasted everywhere to this day. In 1250 Hulāgu captured Baghdād and terminated the now purely shadowy Caliphate, establishing a Persian Empire that extended from Egypt and Byzantium to the confines of China. All this was accomplished with the savagery, and was accompanied by the unspeakable devastation that everywhere characterized the Mongol aggressions.

The immediate opportunity of the Mongols for conquest westwards was the defeat in 1230 of the Khwārizmian Shāh by the Seljūk Kaikubād (1219-1234) of Konia (Iconium in Asia Minor). He conducted a "glorious and successful" campaign, which gained him a great military reputation in his day; but he thereby destroyed the only barrier which existed between the Mongols and civilization, and left the way open for rule over Persia to pass from orthodox Muhammadan Turks into the hands of infidel Mongol hordes.

The main facts to be borne in mind regarding the period of the Caliphate are that for nearly four hundred years, from 874 to 1258, the Caliphs were only nominal sovereigns, and that, though governing officially in their name and as their supporters, the real rulers of Persia, exclusive of some forty petty states, were in succession the Sāmānīs, Būyīs, Ghaznavīs, Seljūks, Salghārīs and Khwārizmīs, and were not Arabs, but Persians, Iranians and Turks. Like the Arsacids, they held back the barbarian hordes of the east for quite half a millennium. The Seljūks in addition, in the eyes of the bulk of the Muhammadans outside Persia, saved Islām by their strict Sunnī orthodoxy from the ruin with which it was threatened by the ritualistic tendencies of the Shī'as.

As in the case of India, it would be an entire mistake to assume that any given period of civil and political internal struggle in Persia was also a period of no culture. The reverse was often the fact, for the combatant princes of Persia in the Middle Ages, even the wildest and most barbarously cruel among

them, lived in a magnificent style and were eager patrons of literature in every form. And thus it came about that under the minor dynasties which rose to the front in the turbulent days of the Caliphs, the famous and prolific Persian literature took its rise and rapidly reached a remarkably high standard. All local effort was naturally at first overshadowed by the *literæ humaniores* of the Arabs introduced by the powerful early Caliphs, and for all practical purposes the foundation of what is now so widely and favourably known as Persian literature was Firdūsī's (at Ghaznī and Baghdād, 941-1020) immortal epic, the *Shāhnāma* (Book of Kings) and its numerous imitations, including the *Iskandarnāma* (Book of Alexander) of Nizāmī of Ganja (Arrān, Elizavetpol, 1141-1203). In addition, Firdūsī, by his *Yūsaf-u-Zulaikhān* (Joseph and Potiphar's Wife), and Nizāmī, by his *Khusrū-u-Shīrīn*, a love-tale of Khusrū Parvēz, founded the splendid Persian school of romantic poetry. To Firdūsī, too, can be traced that didactic and mystic poetry which so long distinguished the Persian writers, and also the work of the satyrists and panegyrists, who came into vogue under the Seljūks.

The didactic school received a distinct impetus at the hands of the astronomer-poet Omar Khayyām (c. 1040-1123) of Nishāpūr, who, however, owed the form in which his teaching was conveyed to Shēkh Abū Sa'īd of Mahna (Khorāsān, 968-1049), a highly poetic language ostensibly referring to "love and wine." Omar Khayyām's work is full of the mystic Sūfism, which combined Persian inherited pantheism with the eclectic mysticism which had arisen in Islām, and so is that of his contemporaries, the more sober Nāsir Khusrū of Merv (1004-1068) and the great saint Shēkh Abdu'llāh Ansārī of Herāt (1006-1089). These two paved the way for the great expositors of the tenets of Sūfism as developed in Persian poetry, of whom Jalālu'ddīn Rūmī of Konia (1207-1273), and the centenarian Farīdu'ddīn Attār of Nishāpūr (1119-1229) are the best known. To this period belongs also, in direct contrast to the Sūfis, Shēkh Sa'dī of Shīrāz, the greatest moral teacher of Persia. Under the



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Dovaston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

FIRDUSI HEARS HIS OWN VERSES REPEATED TO HIM.

Firdūsī (941-1020), the father of the famous Persian literature, was born at Tūs. His great service to the country was the preservation of its ancient legends in his *Shāhnāma* (Book of Kings), out of vast materials collected by Mahmūd of Ghaznī. Quarrelling with that dangerous monarch, Firdūsī wandered about Persia, wrote his great romance, *Yūsaf-u-Zulaikhān* (Joseph and Potiphar's Wife), and finally found his way to Tūs in extreme age, where he was greatly affected on hearing a child lip a satiric quatrain of his own on his treatment by Mahmūd.

Sāmānis of Bokhāra (837-1005) works on history, medicine and scientific subjects of various sorts also began to appear.

The Mongol chiefs of the Dynasty of the Persian Ilkhāns (1256-1344) ruled from Marāgha in Azerbāijān, not at all as one might expect of men so recently sprung from the wild tribes of the steppes of Central Asia. The Western Mongols, in fact, almost immediately after they had once settled down,



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

OMAR KHAYYĀM WORKS OUT THE CALENDAR, 1074 A.D.

Omar Khayyām (1040-1123), the great Persian mathematician, astronomer, free-thinker and epigrammatic poet, left behind him two main achievements: his collection of *rubā'ī*, or quatrains containing philosophic aphorisms, rendered famous in English by Fitzgerald's poetic version, and his revision of the Zij, or astronomical table, for Malik Shāh, the third of the great Seljūks (1071-1092), leading to the introduction of the Ta'rikh-i-Malikshāhi, or Jalālī (Seljūkian) Era, commencing 15th March, 1079 (A.H. 471).

capacity and the cultivated taste of the attentive reader. His immense achievements as a soldier all through life, from the Irtysh and the Volga to the Persian Gulf, and from the Hellespont to the Ganges—the horrible sack of Delhi in 1398, the capture of the great Ottoman (Osmanli) Emperor and conqueror Bayazīd I. (Bajazet, 1389-1403) of Constantinople at Angora in 1402, and his personal *Memoirs* (*Mal'fūzāt-i-Tīmūrī*)—are all matters of general history. In Persia the Tīmūrī Dynasty he set up (1393—c. 1450) ran the old course of gradual decay, leading to anarchy and subjection to a new and vigorous power, this time Persian. His successors of importance were the splendid patron of science

fell into the ways of civilization under the influence alike of Christianity and Islām, although they still remained officially Shāmanists (spirit-worshippers) until the Ilkhān Nikūdar (Nicholas) Ahmad Khān (1281-1284) became a Muhammadan convert. The Ilkhāns thus did unexpected things. They alternately favoured and persecuted Christians, stirred up the European powers to new crusades against the Mamclukes of Egypt, and appointed in one case a Jew (Sa'du'ddaula, a Muhammadan title, 1289-1291), as minister (*wazīr*). Ghazan Mahmūd, the able Ilkhān from 1295 to 1304, was a personage of general importance, in that under him Persia became definitely Muhammadan, and was provided with a permanent administrative staff, a steady system of currency, weights and measures, and a competent mounted postal service. By 1335 the Ilkhāns, like so many of their predecessors, degenerated into puppet kings, till after 1344 Persia came once more to be divided into five minor dynasties: Jalairis (Kājārs), Muzaffaris, Sarbadāris, Beni Kurt, and Jubānis, all to be destroyed between 1393 and 1405 by the armies of yet another Mongol conqueror, Tīmūr (Tīmūr Lang, Tamerlane).

Tīmūr (1336-1405) was by descent the military head of the Barlās tribe of Mongols in Samarkand, but was brought up in the atmosphere of scholarly Arab Muhammadanism in which his father and grandfather delighted, so in him were combined an inherited military



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Dovaston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

CAPTURE OF THE EMPEROR ROMANUS DIOGENES BY ALP ARSLANI IN 1071.

The Seljūk Turks ruled in Persia as the nominal regents of the shadowy Abbāsid Caliphs from 1037 to 1195, and in Syria as independent rulers (Sultāns of Rūm) from 1084 to 1305. The early Seljūks were powerful monarchs, and the second of them, Alp Arslāni (1063-1091), took possession of Syria and Palestine, and successfully fought the Greeks. In 1071 he defeated and captured the Emperor Romanus Diogenes, the hero of a great romance of the day, on the banks of the Araxes in Armenia, and held him to a high ransom.



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

SA'DI AT THE SHRINE OF SIVA AT SOMNATH IN MEDIA, IN 1230.

Sa'di of Shīrāz (1184-1275, some say 1292), the greatest of the Persian didactic poets and the loftiest teacher of his country, took his name from his patron Sa'd, the Salghūri Regent (Atabeg) of Fars for the Abbāsid Caliphs (1194-1226). He was for thirty years by far the greatest traveller of his time, visiting India and then Abyssinia, Arabia, Syria, North Africa and Asia Minor. He returned to Shīrāz under Abu Bakr (Kutlugh Beg), the successor of Sa'd (1226-1260), and there he died in Mongol times.

maḍan style, which with modifications has been adopted in Persia ever since and taken far into India and modern Turkey itself. This style trusts with much success for beauty and distinction to tile decoration carried to the extent of hiding the construction. It has produced many splendid buildings, of which the great mosques at Tabrīz (fourteenth or fifteenth century) and at Isfahān (sixteenth century) are fine early examples.

In yet another phase of general culture, the earlier periods of the world-famous Persian industrial art can be best treated as a whole at the close of the medieval period of its general history. Very little of the art of the Achæmenian times has come down to the present day, but the renaissance of all kinds of artistic industries which arose in Sasanian times (226-651 A.D.), and was so influential and widely spread, took its inspiration from the Assyrian and subsequent civilizations with which it came in contact. Gold plate especially was made and decorated in a style which mingled those of ancient Assyria and decadent Rome in a manner peculiar to itself. Embroidery, too, for hangings and clothing was then practised in the manner general in Asia Minor on Assyrian lines, and the carpet-work goes back to that

and learning, Shāh Rukh (1409-1446) and the scientific poet and encourager of literature, Ulugh Beg (1446-1450). Indeed, it was during the polished rule of the Mongols that Persian lyric poetry reached to a height that has made it world-renowned, owing to the genius of Hāfiz (1315-1388), and of Ibn Yamīn (fifteenth century), the great writer of moral lyrics (*kita'*).

In the midst of the general confusion at the end of the Tīmūrī rule there appeared a local Sultān of the same race, Husain Mīrzā of Herāt (1487-1506), as the patron of the last of the classic Persian poets, Jāmī (1414-1492), and of Mirkhond (Mīr-khwānd, 1433-1498), the historian, whose great work was finished by his grandson, the celebrated Khondamir (Khwāndamīr, 1475-1534).

It was also in the days of the Mongols that culture in another direction displayed itself and the distinctive Persian form of Muhammadan architecture took its rise. The Caliphs and their immediate successors had been content to continue in their buildings the earlier Assyrian style as developed into the Sasanian, and adapt it to their new needs. But under the Mongols in the fourteenth century there arose a style of constructing mosques in the manner of the Greek (Byzantine) Church, with its central dome, aisles and sanctuary, combined with the semi-domes and stalactite pendentives of the Egyptian Muham-

of Nineveh itself. In late medieval days carpet-making was carried out in a style common to Persia, Turkestān and Asia Minor generally. The pottery of the Sasanians was also a direct descendant of that of the Assyrians, and it was not till the medieval times roughly covered by the nominal rule of the Abbāsīd Caliphs and their Mongol successors—tenth to sixteenth centuries—that the decorated pottery, the blue glazes and the lustre ware, probably introduced originally from Egypt and Assyria, which are specially recognized everywhere as Persian, showed that their makers had become perfect masters of their art. In this period, too, pottery tiles were good in workmanship, design and colour, while the wood-carving of Samarkand and Bokhāra, which closely followed Arab designs, became remarkable. The quantity, spread and quality of all this industrial art proves that, as in India, there must have been long periods of peace and prosperity locally in Persia, despite the constant political upheavals that afflicted the land during the whole of the six hundred years of the later Caliphs and the Mongols.

During the great disturbances towards the end of these days there arose for a time a troubled domination over Persia, of much future consequence, by the cultured leader of the Turkomān tribe of the White Sheep (Standard, Akkūyūnlu), Uzūn Hasan ("Long Hasan," and many other names, c. 1468–1478). Then ensued a state of continuous civil war, till it was put an end to by the rise of the Safavī (Sūfī) Dynasty in 1499.

Isma'il Safavī (1499–1524), the new conqueror of Persia and founder of the once widely celebrated national Dynasty of the Safavīs (also Sūfīs and Haidarīs), the "Great Sophie" dynasty of Queen Elizabeth's days, was born in 1480. On his father's side he was the lineal descendant of the seventh Imām of the Shī'as, Mūsā al-Kāzīm (died c. 799), through the celebrated Shī'a saint, Shēkh Saifu'ddīn Izhāk of Ardabīl (fourteenth century). His father, the still greater saint, Shēkh Haidar Sūfī, "the outcome of whose teaching was a division of Muhammadanism vitally momentous to the world of Islām," wielded an enormous influence as the most important exponent of the poetic mysticism of the Sūfī philosophers of Persia. His mother was Martha, the daughter of then recent Turkomān ruler, Uzūn Hasan, by his Christian wife, Despīna, daughter of the Emperor John Comnenus (Calo Johannes), of Trebizond in Asia Minor. Isma'il I. was thus a Shī'a, a Sūfī, and a Persian by descent, with many popular claims to the throne, all of which qualifications, added to his championship of the Shī'a faith, procured for him during his lifetime the enthusiastic adhesion of his army, and have made him an object



Painted specially for this work

BOKHARA OPENS ITS GATE TO THE MONGOL, OGODAI KHAN,
1231 A.D.

[By H. M. Burton.]

In 1231 Shāh Jalālu'ddīn Mangbarti of Khwārizm (Bokhāra) was so weakened by his wars with the Seljuk ruler, Kaikubād of Rūm (Syria), that he and his kingdom fell an easy prey to the Mongol Ogodai Khān, son of the great Chinghiz Khān. Bokhāra, then the "Centre of Science," opened its gate to him, and the people placed themselves at the mercy of the conqueror.



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE MONGOL, HULAGU KHAN, ENTERING BAGHDAD IN 1256.

After the beginning of the twelfth century Persia, nominally under the Abbāsid Caliphs of Baghdād, was really divided up into many principalities, the later Seljūks, the Shāhs of Khwārizm and the Salghāri Atabegs of Fārs acting in succession as regents for the Caliphs. It was the internecine strife between the Seljūks of Rūm and the Shāhs of Khwārizm that gave the Mongol leader, Hulāgu Khān, his chance, and enabled him to put an end to the Caliphate in 1256, and found the dynasty of the Mongol Ilkhāns, (nominal viceroys) of Persia, whose empire extended from the Bosphorus to the confines of China.

of reverence to his countrymen ever since—"the person to whom that faith in which they glory owes its establishment as a national religion." It was in his time, 1502, that the well-known and historically important Shi'a doctrine of the Twelve Imāms (Isna'asharīa), with the Shāh as the visible representative of the last or occulted Imām (Muhammad al-Mahdī, ninth century), was introduced into Persia.

Isma'il I. reigned from Tabrīz (Tauris) as Shāh of Persia, and his career was brilliantly adventurous throughout. Though almost uniformly successful in his many wars, the great contest of his time was his struggle with the Sunnī Sultān of Constantinople, Selīm I. (1512-1520), in which he was worsted, largely by the 'Turks' use of artillery, then a novelty, at the hard fight of Khōi (1514), on the frontiers of Azerbāijān. This defeat was not permanent, but, nevertheless, the war was of great moment, as it was, in fact, a duel



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE MONGOL ABAGHA AND HIS BYZANTINE BRIDE.

The Mongols assimilated the Christian and Islāmic civilization of their day with extraordinary rapidity, though they remained Shāmanists (spirit-worshippers) till Nikūdar (Nicholas) Ahmad Khān adopted Islām in 1282. Hulāgu himself employed Nizāmum'ddin Tūsi to reform the Zīj, or astronomical tables, and his son Abagha (1265-1281), an intelligent and peaceful administrator, showed his large sympathies by marrying a daughter of Michael Palaeologus (1234-1282).

between Sunnī and Shi'a, rather than between rival monarchs. The depth of the mutual hatred of the two factions of Islām may be gauged by the fact that it was then the privilege of the Persian Shi'as to publicly curse the first three Caliphs, so holy in Sunnī eyes.

Isma'il I. was succeeded by his son Shāh Tahmasp, who reigned fifty-two years (1524-1576) in troubled fashion. He was not a man of great parts, but he was most useful to Europe, in that he occupied the attention of the Turkish Sultān Sulaimān the Magnificent (1520-1566) sufficiently to keep him off Austria. After Tahmasp there was practical anarchy till the great Shāh Abbās I. (1586-1628) held the reins of power at Kazvīn and Isfahān. As a military administrator he recovered all the provinces of Isma'il I., both east and west, which the intervening Shāhs had lost. As a civil ruler he was tolerant of the Christians, a strong preserver of internal peace, a great upholder of legal authority, and an enthusiastic promoter of public works. As a monarch he had a world-wide reputation, which attracted

ambassadors from all the great European Courts of the time, and he also had the merit in the eyes of his countryman of being peculiarly Persian.

The country was unfortunate in his successors, Shāh Sūfī, Shāh Abbās II. and Shāh Sulaimān (1628-1694). Weak, debauched, cruel and incapable, they lost much of their kingdom to outsiders. They were, however, for the most part kindly disposed towards the Christians, and kept up a magnificent Court at Isfahān, then the finest city in Asia and a delight to European visitors. In their name also internal peace was maintained in the provinces they ruled. Under Shāh Husain (1694-1729), deliberately selected by the Court for his "pacific" temperament, there was still peace for twenty years, and then came the memorable days of the Afghān aggression, the disastrous battle of Gulnābād near Kandahār



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Donovan, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

GEOFFREY DE LANGLEY WITH BAR SAUMA BEFORE ARGHUN KHAN, 1288.

In 1287 Arghun Khān (1284-1291), the son of Abagha, sent the well-known traveller, the Nestorian monk, Rabban Bar Sauma, on an embassy to the Western States. Bar Sauma met Edward I. at Bordeaux, and afterwards the Pope Nicholas IV., who sent him back to Arghun with a mission to get up a crusade against the Egyptian Mamelukes, whom Arghun detested. With Bar Sauma travelled in 1288 the English knight Geoffrey de Langley with a gerfalcon from Edward I.

in 1722, the subsequent entry into Isfahān of an "inhuman miscreant," the Ghilzai chief Mahmūd, as conqueror, the ruthless massacres of the Persian nobility in 1723 and of the ruling family in 1725, leading to the Afghān leader's usurpation of the Persian throne.

Mahmūd, who died in 1725, was succeeded by a more humane kinsman, Ashraf, and it was he who acknowledged the Sultān of Turkey, in 1727, as the Chief (Khalīfa) of the Moslems. At this time Nādir Kuli, a naturalized Persian guerilla chief, who was nevertheless a military leader of remarkable capacity, joined Tahmasp, the fugitive son of Shāh Husain, defeated Ashraf, and in 1729 entered Isfahān, only to find Shāh Husain murdered. He at once set up as Shāh, Tahmasp II. (1730-1732), but soon deposed him for his weakness towards the Turks, and then placed on the throne the last Safavī, Tahmasp's little son, Abbās III. (1732-1736), who died at a suspiciously convenient time a few years later. In the



Painted specially for this work

TAMERLANE INVADES PERSIA.

The world-renowned Mongol conqueror Tamerlane, who is called in the East Timūr or Timūr Lang (The Lane), commenced his career in 1369 as the ruler of a limited area at Samarkand. Between 1393 and 1405 he made himself master of all Persia, then divided between five minor dynasties always at war. The remarkable points in Tamerlane's personality were his Mongol ferocity, his capacity as a military leader, his high education, and a cultivated taste inherited from a scholarly father.

W.S. Bagdatopulos.
[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.]



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

A FIGHT BETWEEN BLACK AND WHITE SHEEP TURKS (FIFTEENTH CENTURY).

In the fifteenth century the feuds between the Black Sheep (Karakūyūnlu) Turks of Van and the White Sheep (Akkūyūnlu) Turks of Diarbekr, so called from their standards, caused great disturbances in Western Asia. They produced two enlightened rulers in Persia, Jahan Shāh Karakūyūnlu (1450-1468) and Uzūn Hasan Akkūyūnlu (1468-1487), who both did much for the country.

meantime Nādir had followed Ashraf back to Kandahār and procured his death in 1730. Thus did Nādir, the naturalized Persian, save his country from the Afghāns. On the death of Abbās III. in 1736, he attained his ambition, and was proclaimed by public acclamation the ruler of Persia as Nādir Shāh. In such fashion did the famous Safavī Dynasty come to an inglorious end.

In literature and the arts the Safavīs performed invaluable services to their country and the world. In their days the heroic legend, in which Alexander (Iskandar) figured largely, and the novel based originally on the old epic poetry founded by Firdūsī, and often very lengthy, came into vogue, as also did an epic style dealing with tales of modern history. Romantic and Sūfī verse continued to be poured out in large quantities, but in lyric poetry there set in a distinct corruption of taste in the "new style" introduced by Sā'ib (died 1677). Scientific works and *ta'rikhs*, or detailed historical treatises, of all kinds were numerous and have been produced in large quantities ever since.

In the arts the Safavīs preserved the great traditions of their medieval predecessors in embroidery and carpet-making, as exhibited in the famous sixteenth century carpet at Ardabīl in Azerbāijān, and in the making and decorating of pottery and tiles. Under the great Shāh Abbās I. (1587-1629) the tile-making reached its highest limit, and it was in his time, too, that the Perso-Chinese style of decorating pottery came into vogue in imitation of Chinese work. The greatest advance, however, in artistic design and workmanship made during his rule was in metal work especially in damascening (gold, silver and copper inlay in steel and iron), so named from Damascus, the place of export. This spread through the civilized world and was copied in Italy for armour as early as the days of Benvenuto Cellini (1500-1571); but since the period of the Safavīs no special advance in Persian art has been made in any direction.

Nādir Shāh was born about 1687, and though reckoned by the Persians as one of their great native heroes, in spite of his vigorous pose as an active Sunnī, he was the son of the chief of the Ashar clan of Turkomāns and governor of a fortress in Khorāsān, from which he was ousted during the loose local control of the later Safavī rulers. After his elevation to the Persian throne, he at once set out to

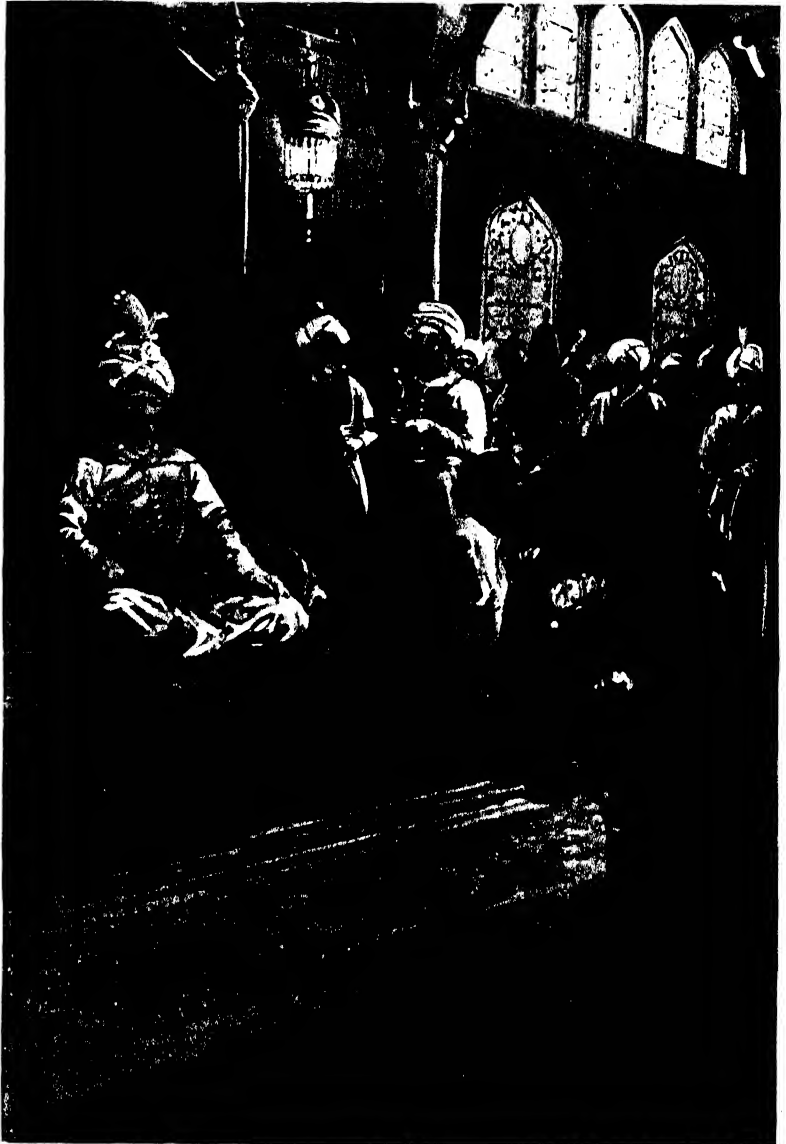
consolidate his rule in the eastern provinces, making Meshed (Mash-had) his capital. His raid into India, largely assisted by his hostile attitude towards the Shī'as; the capture and horrible sack of Delhi (1739), the marriage of one of his sons to the grand-daughter of Aurangzeb, and the defeat of the Shāh of Khwārizm, are all matters of general history; and thus before long the whilom fugitive tribal chief established himself as ruler of Persia from the Tigris to the Oxus and the Indus. An attempt on his life during his wars with the Turks on his western borders turned him into a morose, suspicious, half-demented tyrant, until he became insupportable and was murdered by his own guard in 1747.

On the death of Nādir Shāh, there was anarchy for the next thirteen years, during which some of his relatives alternated with descendants of the Safavīs as the nominal sovereigns of Persia. Out of the trouble that ensued there arose at once Ahmad Shāh Durrānī (1724-1773), the chief of the Abdālī Afghāns, as the independent ruler of Afghānistān and subsequently of much of Northern India as well, to be the perpetrator of yet another horrible sack of Delhi (1756). The chief of the Bakhtiārīs (tribes of Persian nomads of the ancient Anshān or Elam), and the since important Kājārs (a tribe of Turks from the Caspian Sea), also began to emerge conspicuously about this time.

Ultimately Karīm Khān, a Zend (Persian Kūrd) chief from Isfahān, originally at the instigation of the Bahktiārīs, settled down at Shīrāz to govern all Persia for nineteen years, as its Vakīl or Regent on behalf of no one in particular, just as the Mongol rulers before him had ruled as Ilkhāns or Viceroys subject to no one. He did great things for Shīrāz, and was an enlightened and cautious ruler.

On Karīm Khān's death, in 1779, there was again anarchy amidst the most shocking cruelties on the part of the Zend (Kūrd) ruling family fighting for the supreme authority. Among many other horrors there occurred the savage destruction of Kirmān in 1795, on the capture and murder, at the hands of the cruel Kājār chief, Agā Muhammad, of Lutf Ali Khān, the last of the short-lived and nominally viceregal Zend Dynasty founded by Karīm Khān.

As a result of the collapse of the House of Karīm Khān, Agā



Painted specially for this work.

[By H. M. Burton.]

SIR ANTHONY SHIRLEY AT THE COURT OF SHAH ABBAS THE GREAT IN 1599.

The famous "Three Brothers" of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, Sir Thomas, Sir Anthony and Sir Robert Shirley, all had distinguished careers in the East, the last two spending years in Persia. In 1599 Sir Anthony, in the interests of trade, visited the Court of the Safavī ruler, Shah Abbās the Great, who made him a *mirzā*, or prince, and later on, in 1608, Sir Robert was sent by the Shāh as his envoy to James I.



MINARS, OR TOWERS, OF SKULLS.

In 1743 Nādir Shāh celebrated the quelling of a rebellion of the Kājārs and Turkomans by setting up *minars*, or towers, of their skulls, as a warning in a fashion then common in the East.

English began to intervene in the internal troubles of Persia, and to appoint permanent representatives at the Persian Court, and it was to Fattēh Ali Shāh that the great missionary, Henry Martyn (1781-1812), presented his translation of the New Testament into the language of the country.

Fattēh Ali Shāh was succeeded by his grandson Muhammad Shāh (1834-1847), after a short struggle, in which the English gave him assistance, afterwards ill-requited. His reign was chiefly distinguished politically by the unsuccessful siege of Herāt (1837), undertaken on Russian advice hostile to England and memorable for the very gallant defence of Eldred Pottinger, a young English artillery officer. Its natural consequence, the first Afghān War (1839-1842) was, however, serious indeed. Then occurred in 1840 the rebellion of the governor of Khorāsān, Agā Khān Mahlātī (1800-1881), the Chief of the Isma'īliya sect (Assassins), his flight to India, and the subsequent great assistance he gave to the British Government during and after the Afghān War. But it ended in nothing more serious for Persia than the rise of a curious quasi-ecclesiastical line of chiefs, the Agā Khāns of Bombay.

Much more serious towards the end of Muhammad Shāh's career was the rise of the Bābis in 1844. In that year Sayyid Ali Muhammad of Shīrāz (1821-1850), an extreme Shī'a, founded a new religion, under the title of the Bāb, or "gate" of intercession between the occulted Twelfth Imām (Muhammad al-Mahdī, ninth century) and his faithful followers the Shī'as. The Bābis were in their initial stages very militant, and the Bāb himself was executed in 1850 during one of the revolts they initiated against the Shāh as the official representative of the hidden Imām—a doctrine giving modern form to the notion ingrained in the Persian mind from the days of the Achæmenids, and even before them, that the king was himself the deity. Bābism is an extension

Muhammad, the Kājār (1779-1797), became ruler from Teherān over all Persia, as "one of the most cruel and vindictive despots that ever disgraced a throne;" but he had before that been *de facto* ruler over a large part of the country since Karīm Khān's death. The outrageous treatment he had himself met with in his youth accounts for, though it can hardly excuse, the excesses which marred his otherwise useful career. These were so marked that only their memory has remained; but on behalf of his countrymen he was a Shī'a of the Shī'as, and restored the power of the old Persian sect, which had diminished greatly under the influence of the Afghāns and Nādir Shāh, and he was a lifelong opponent of Russian aggression, maintaining his struggle against it till his death in 1797.

Agā Muhammad was succeeded by his nephew Fattēh Ali Shāh (1797-1834), whose reign was taken up with fighting against Russia, in the course of which much territory was lost to Persia, a more successful war with Turkey, the commencement of diplomatic dealings with England and India brought about by the designs of Napoleon, and the final subjection of Khorāsān, which had been practically independent since Karīm Khān's death. In 1808 the



By permission of]

[The Countess of Albemarle

PERSIAN ARMOUR.

Early part of eighteenth century.

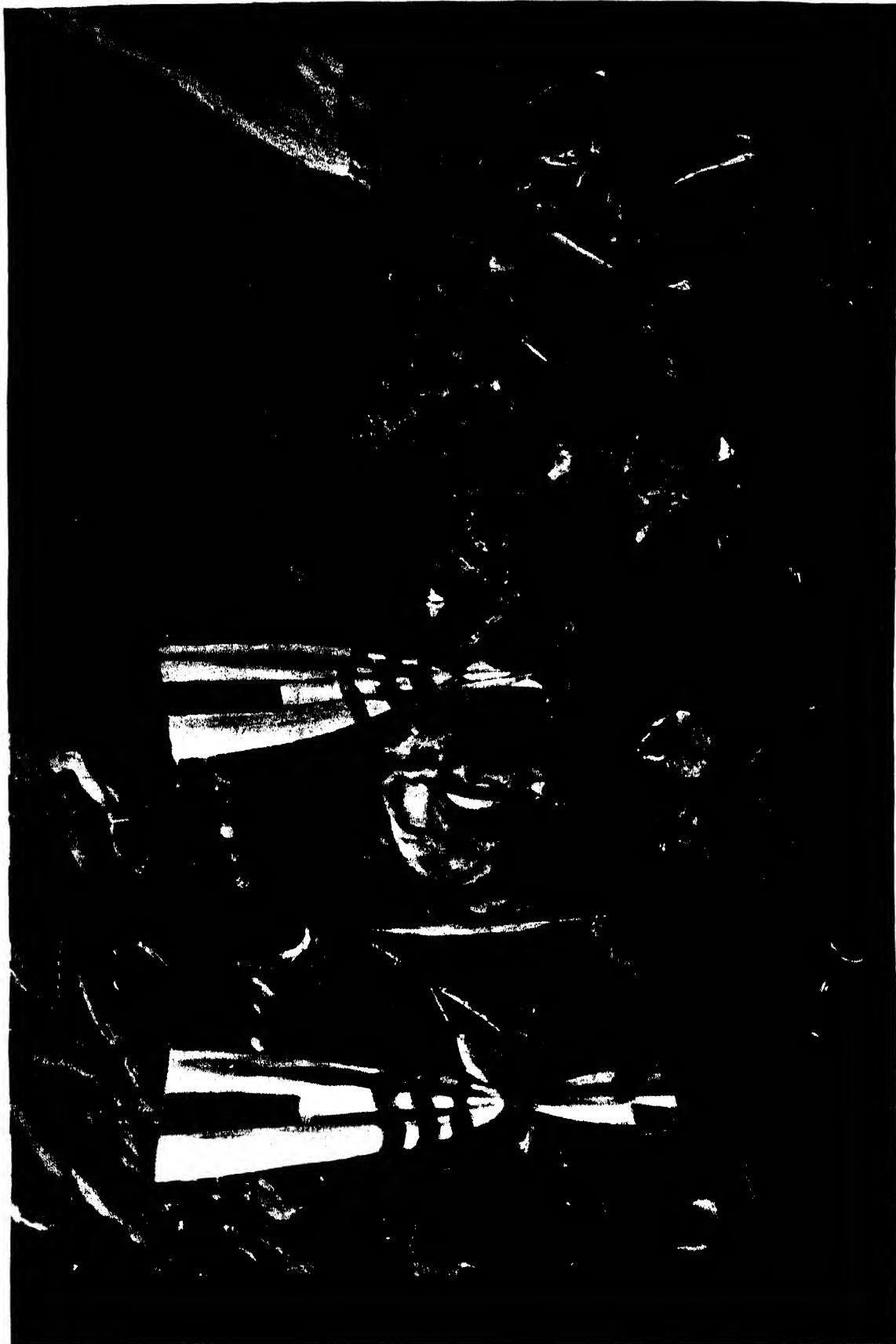


Painted specially for this work

PERSIANS DEFEATED BY RUSSIANS AT ASLANDUZ, 1st NOVEMBER, 1812.

[By W. S. Bagdatopulos.

At the peace of Tilsit in 1807 Napoleon and the Tsar Nicholas I. divided the world between them, and this led to long wars between Russia and her neighbours, of which Persia was one. In 1812, when the Russian forces defeated him at Aslanduz, two British officers,



Painted specially for this work

YORITOMO BECOMES SHOGUN, A.D. 1192.

In his clemency Kiyomori spared the lives of Yoritomo and Yoshitsune, sons of the Minamoto warrior. During a life passed in warfare, Yoritomo attained to supreme power. He avenged his father's death and secured supremacy for his own family, and in the reign of the Emperor Go Toba entered Kyoto in triumph with the title of Sei-i-tai-Shogun—Commander-in-chief and subjugator of barbarians. Yoritomo was a great statesman, and the founder of military feudalism in Japan.

by H. M. Burton



Timūr Lang. 1369-1405.

of Shī'a Mu-
hammadan
philosophy,
basing its re-
forms on the
doctrine of
progressive
revelation.
In the hands
of Sayyid
Husain Ali of
Baghdād,
and after-
wards of Acre



Shāh Tahmasp I., the Great Sophie
(Sufi, Safavi). 1524-1576.

(1817-1892),
surnamed
Bahā'u'llāh,
"he whom
God shall
manifest,"
Bābism de-
veloped into
the more
practical
Bahā'ism
(1863). Bābī
and Bahā'īs
have since



Shāh Abbās the Great. 1586-1628.

abounded in Persia and elsewhere, being numerous even in America. In 1847 there came to the throne Muhammad Shāh's son, Nasru'ddīn Shāh (1847-1896), a well-known figure in the European capitals, as he was the first Shāh to visit the Western world, and this he did on three occasions between 1873 and 1889. He had at once to face an insurrection in Khorāsān, and then a second on the part of the Bābīs and an attack on himself in 1852 by one of the Bāb's followers, when he was wounded. Then followed an inconclusive war with England because of his pretensions to Herāt.



Shāh Husain. 1694-1729.

Irrespective of political troubles arising out of the rivalries of the English, Russian and French governments, a good deal of Nasru'ddīn's long reign was much taken up by others relating to various Western attempts to exploit his territories commercially, some of which were dishonest, while others met with failure for peculiarly Oriental reasons. One venture was, however, wholly good, when between 1862 and 1872 arrangements for a through land telegraph over Persian territory made that country one



Nādir Shāh. 1736-1747.

of the principal means of general communication between East and West. In the end Nasru'ddīn met the fate of the great majority of the long list of his predecessors, and died by the hand of an assassin, who had imbibed anarchical ideas in Constantinople.

His successor, Muzaffaru'ddīn Shāh (1896-1906), desired to visit Europe soon after his accession; but as he could not do this without settling accounts with his army and civil officials, the project, carried

out later on
in 1900 and
1902, brought
about a loan
from the Rus-
sian Govern-
ment, accom-
panied, of
course, by a
correspond-
ing influence.
This England
might have
secured, and



Muhammad Ali Shāh. 1906-1909.

it led to
serious rival-
ry between
the two Euro-
pean powers
in Persia,
which was
chiefly com-
mercial, until
the political
situation
created in
Asia gene-
rally by the



Fattah Ali Shāh. 1797-1834.



Sultān Ahmad Shāh. 1909.



Painted specially for this work

THE EXECUTION OF THE BAB IN 1850

[By M. Doraton, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

In 1844 Sayyid Ali Muhammad of Shirāz (1821-1850) founded a new religion, by which he became the Bab, or "gate" of intercession between the Shi'as and the occulted Twelfth Imām, Muhammad al-Mahdi (twelfth century) whose representative on earth was officially the Shah of Persia. The main tenet of the Bābī was therefore inimical to the Persian throne, and the sect was

Russo-Japanese War happily brought it to an end, and made possible a Convention in 1907, whereby the sphere of influence of each party was definitely agreed.

Misgovernment and disorder were rife everywhere under Muzaffaru'ddīn Shāh, and in 1905 the discontented parties, following the example of the revolutionaries in Russia, demanded Representative Government. In this case they secured it from the Shāh, who created a popular Majlis (Mejliss, Parliament), and ostensibly became a constitutional monarch in 1906. In the same year he died, and his successor, Muhammad Ali (1906-1909), pledged himself on accession to maintain that rôle; but there was continuous trouble between him and his Parliament, ending in 1909 in his deposition by the popular

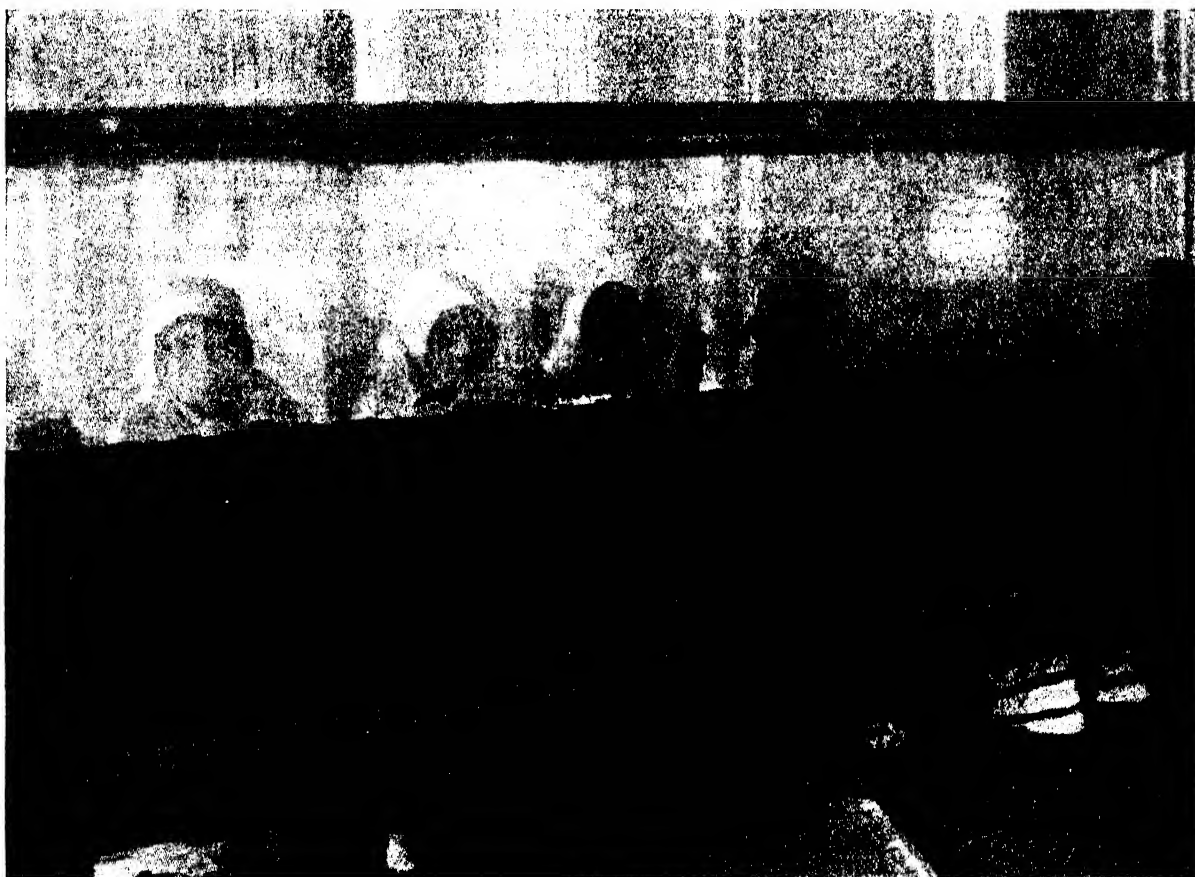


Photo by permission of]

[Alfred Heinicke.

MAKING PERSIAN CARPETS.

Persian carpets are entirely hand-made, even the wool being woven and knotted by hand without the aid of a shuttle. Quality depends on closeness of stitches, which vary from ten thousand to forty thousand per square foot. It is estimated that in the famous Ardabil carpet at South Kensington Museum there are about thirty-two and a quarter million stitches all tied by hand (say work for four operators for ten years). Chief centres of industry are Kerman and Sultanabad in Kurdistan. Child-labour is largely used under very bad conditions, damp underground workrooms being best for the wool. Overseer calls out pattern, "Three red, one blue, one yellow," etc., in high-pitched monotone.

political party with the active assistance of the Bakhtiārī chiefs, and the substitution of his son, Sultān Ahmad, aged thirteen, as Shāh of Persia. Since then there has been constitutional government under a Regency, accompanied by the old, old story in Persia of much internal disorder, and attempts at recovery of his throne by the ousted monarch. In 1912 occurred an extraordinary incident in which Mr. Morgan Shuster, formerly an American customs official, became Treasurer-General, and for a short time virtually Shāh of Persia. A capable man, but unfortunately so obsessed with the virtue of Republican ideas that he ignored the fact that tact is essential when dealing with foreign nations, and so his well-meant efforts ended in early dismissal on the demand of Russia with the acquiescence of England. In 1914 the British Government obtained control over all the oil-fields in Southern Persia, a step capable of leading to far-reaching results.



MODERN PERSIAN ARTILLERY (1909).



DESTRUCTION IN TEHRAN DURING THE REVOLUTION, 1909.

In 1905 revolutionaries of the European type, taking advantage of the disorders rampant under Muzaffaru'ddīn Shāh (1896-1906), obtained nominal constitutional government from the Shāh, with a Mejlīs or Parliament. His successor, Muhammad Ali Shāh (1906-1909), had continual trouble with the popular representatives, and was finally deposed during a general rising assisted by the Bakhtiāri chiefs. His son, Sultān Ahmad, the present Shah, then aged thirteen, was placed on the throne as a constitutional monarch.

The young Shāh is now of age and the use he will make of his authority remains to be seen ; but as regards his countrymen, the Persian of to-day is the lineal descendant of the Persians of the past ages, faithful to type : proud, intelligent, active and withal incapable and easy-going, the natural quarry of the foreigner—Greek, Scythian, Parthian, Arab, Turk, Mongol, Afghān, Turkomān, Kūrd, Russian, British. A fact in this connection to arouse thought is that practically every town of importance in Persia has in history at some time or other been a great capital from which a foreigner has ruled. These considerations tempt one to foresee that Persia is destined by geographical position to be once more the scene of the clash of civilizations and the contact of rival empires.



Copyright of]

MAP OF PERSIA, ANCIENT AND MODERN.

[Hutchinson & Co.

Understanding that the boundaries always greatly fluctuated, the largest extent of the Persian Empire was under (1) the Achaemenians (539-330 B.C.); (2) the Parthians (165 B.C.—226 A.D.); (3) the Sassanians (226-651 A.D.); (4) the Mongols (1256-1344 A.D.). From the time of Khusrū Parvez (Sassanian), 562 A.D., till the end of the Caliphate, 1258, Yemen (Arabia) was nominally under the suzerainty of Persia.

DATES OF JAPANESE HISTORY

660 B.C. TO 1914 A.D.

PERIODS.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
Legendary and early History.	B.C. 660	The date of the coronation of Jimmu, the first emperor, at Yamato, according to Japanese authorities. Japanese chronology previous to the fifth century is, however, very uncertain.
	585	The death of Jimmu at Kashiwa-bara. Authorities differ as to his age, which is said to have been either 127 or 137 years.
	About the year 300.	Legend says a great earthquake took place, and from it was formed Mount Fuji and Lake Biwa.
	A.D. 97-112	Prince Yamatodake, the great hero of legendary Japan, conquers the southern and the eastern provinces.
	200	The Empress Jingo led an army to conquer Korea.
	405	The art of writing was introduced from Korea.
	415	The ordeal of boiling water was used as a test of guilt or innocence, there being no courts of justice. In this instance it was employed upon persons to correct them in their genealogies when they were suspected of falsely claiming descent from gods or emperors.
	462	The Emperor Yuriaku, recognizing the importance of cultivating silkworms, induced the Empress and ladies of the court to plant mulberry-trees with their own hands to encourage sericulture.
	540	Immigrations of Chinese and Korean settlers.
	552	Buddhism first introduced from Korea.
	572	Birth of Shōtoku Daishi, the great reformer and apostle of Buddhism. During his life (he died in 621) the Chinese systems of government and civilization were adopted by Japan.
	588	Buddhist priests and ascetics sent from Korea. Carvers of Buddhist images and also architects of Buddhist temples arrive in large numbers.
	599	An earthquake afflicts the province of Yamato.
	602	Chinese calendar adopted.
	610	A census taken of the population, which amounted to almost five millions.
	645	Completion of reforms initiated by Shōtoku Daishi.
	656	A great canal was dug during the reign of the Empress Saimai, employing 30,000 men. A wall was built employing 70,000 men.
	670	The Fujiwara family obtain political control of the Empire.
	679	A great earthquake devastates the provinces of Chikuzen and Chikugo.
	681	Costumes of every class regulated by the Emperor Temmu.
	709	Establishment of the capital at Nara.
	712	Compilation of the Kojiki ("Record of Ancient Matters"), the oldest Japanese book still extant.
	736	Population recorded as more than eight and a half millions.
	774	Birth of Kōbō Daishi, a great Buddhist saint, and the inventor of the Hiragana syllabary. He died in 834.
	794	The Imperial capital is transferred to Kioto from Nara by order of the Emperor Kwammu.
	850	Native school of art founded by Kōse-no-Kanaoka.
	c. 900-1100	The powerful military clans of Taira and Minamoto become rivals, and engage in terrible civil wars.
	940	Rebellion of Masakado, grandson of the founder of the Taira family, with the view of placing himself on the Imperial throne, the only instance in Japanese history of a subject aspiring to the crown.
	1000	Further development of painting by the native artist Fujiwara-no-Motomitsu.
	1100	The abbot of Tōga becomes the first exponent of the art of Japanese caricature.
Period of Civil Wars.	1161	Kiyomori, head of the Taira clan, assumes the executive power on the defeat of the Minamoto clan.
	1181	Death of Kiyomori, the great Taira leader.
	1184	Crushing defeat of the Taira by the Minamoto at the Battle of Ichi-no-Tani, near the modern city of Kobe.
	1185	The Taira clan is completely overthrown and annihilated in a sea-fight at Dan-no-ura by the Minamoto clan.
	1192	Yoritomo, heading the Minamoto clan, is made Sei-i-tai-Shōgun (Barbarian-subjugating General-in-chief) and establishes the Shōgunate at Kamakura.
	1198	Death of Yoritomo.
	c. 1200-1300	In painting there flourished about this time the school of Yamato Tosa, and also the artists Nobuzani and Taunika.
	1205-1233	The Hojo family exercise the political control of the Empire.
	1225	Death of Masago, wife of Yoritomo, one of the historical women of Japan.
	1252	The great bronze statue of Buddha—the Dai Butsu, or Great Buddha—cast at Kamakura.
	1274-1281	Kublai Khan, the founder of the Mongol dynasty in China, attempts the invasion of Japan, but is repulsed.
	1298	The name of Japan first made known to Europeans by Marco Polo.
	c. 1330-1500	Renewal of civil warfare.
	1333	Kamakura taken by storm and the Hojo family destroyed by the supporters of the Emperor Daigo.
	1333-1392	Two rival Imperial dynasties, the northern at Kioto and the southern at Yoshino; the former now known in history as the "False Emperors."
	1338-1565	The Ashikaga dynasty of Shōguns govern the Empire. Civil war continuous throughout nearly the whole period.
	1427	Chō Densu, a painter of religious subjects, dies.
	1507	Death of Sesshū, a famous painter of Japanese landscapes.
	1524	Kamakura again destroyed, and finally ceased to be a town of either political or commercial importance.
	1542	Visit of Portuguese trading ships to Japan. Various families dispute for supremacy in Japan. The "later Hojo" family attains prominence and establishes its chief seat at Odawara in the Sagami province. Birth of Iyeyasu, founder of the Tokugawa Shōgunate.
	1549	Christianity first introduced into Japan by St. Francis Xavier, the Portuguese Jesuit missionary.
	1559	Death of Kano Moto-Nobu, the great painter.
	1564	Ota Nobunaga becomes military dictator.
	1571	Destruction by Nobunaga of the great fortress-monastery on Mount Hiei, near Kioto.
	1582	Toyotomi Hidēyoshi becomes military dictator with the title of Kwambaku (Regent) on the death by assassination of Nobunaga. Mission despatched to the Pope by native Christians in Japan.
Tokugawa Dynasty of Shōguns.	1587	More than 200,000 native Christians in Japan.
	1590	The city of Yedo founded by Iyeyasu Tokugawa. Valignani, Provincial of the Jesuits in Japan, accredited as ambassador.
	1592-1598	Invasion of Korea by Hidēyoshi, terminated by his death in 1598.
	1598	First European Christian martyrs crucified at Nagasaki.
	1600	The daimio—i.e., territorial nobles—submit to Iyeyasu after a decisive victory gained over them at Sekigahara, and the Tokugawa Shōgunate is founded. Many favours shown to Will Adams, a pilot in the service of the Dutch East India Company, and the first Englishman to reach Japan. He is detained there by the Emperor, who makes use of his services as a shipbuilder until his death in 1620.
	1609	Dutch factory established at Hirado.
	1611	Christians expelled from court by Iyeyasu.
	1613	Second mission to the Pope and to the King of Spain sent via Mexico, by Katē Madasunne, Lord of Oshiu. The Clove, the first English ship to reach Japan, arrives at Hirado and English factory established.
	1614	Edict against Christianity and expulsion of Jesuits from Japan.
	1615	Capture of the castle of Osaka by Iyeyasu from Hideyori, son of Hidēyoshi, and consolidation of the Tokugawa power.
	1616	Death of Iyeyasu.
	1619	The English factory abandoned as a failure.
	1620-1650	Feudal system completed in Japan.
	1624	Christianity bitterly persecuted, and Japan closed against foreigners with the exception of the Dutch.
	1633-37	Repeated edicts against Christianity and relentless persecution of Christians.
	1635	Iyemitsu issues an edict forbidding the construction of ships of over fifty tons, and thus destroys maritime enterprise.
	1637	Isolation of Japan completed by Iyemitsu, the third Tokugawa Shōgun.

DATES OF JAPANESE HISTORY—continued

PERIODS.	DATE.	CHIEF EVENTS.
	1638	Destruction of the town of Shimabara, the last Christian place of refuge in Japan. The Dutch assist in the destruction.
	1639	The Dutch residents in Japan are strictly confined in the little island of Desima in Nagasaki harbour.
	1640	Large Portuguese embassy from Macao to appeal against expulsion of their countrymen from Japan. Members all beheaded with the exception of thirteen spared to carry back the news to Macao.
	1653	Birth of Ogaia Kōrim, the artist.
	1672	The <i>Return</i> , British ship, visits Nagasaki, but reception refused by Japanese.
	1702	Great destruction wrought by earthquake and tidal wave; destruction of the walls of the castle at Yedo.
	1707	Last eruption of Mount Fuji.
	1713	Death of Hishigawa Moronobu, artist and founder of a school of painting.
	1723	The population at this time was rather more than twenty-six millions.
	1775	A naturalistic school of painting is created by Ōkio.
	1782	Russians take compassion on shipwrecked Japanese, who are sent to Irkutsk in Siberia, where they live for some time, until the Empress Catherine II. gives instructions that they may leave for Japan.
	1797	Nagasaki is visited by Captain Stewart in an American vessel.
	1799	Captain Devereux visits Nagasaki in the American ship <i>Franklin</i> .
	1804	A Russian embassy is sent to Japan.
	1808	The <i>Phaeton</i> , British frigate, commanded by Sir Edward Pellew, entered Nagasaki.
	1853	Commodore Perry visits Japan. A treaty is signed on his second visit in the following year, the first between Japan and the United States.
	1857	The diplomatic mission of Mr. Townsend Harris from America to Japan.
	1857-59	Treaties of commerce concluded between Japan and the United States and European Powers (including Great Britain).
	1861	British Legation in Tokio attacked by Conservative fanatics.
	1863	Bombardment of Kayoshima, the capital of Satsuma, by the British fleet on account of the murder of a British subject named Richardson in the preceding year.
	1864	Bombardment of Shimonoseki by the allied fleets of Great Britain, France, Holland and the United States.
Meiji Era and Modern Japan	1867	Mutsuhito ascends the throne as Emperor.
	1868	Resignation of Yoshinobu, the last Shōgun. Breakdown of feudalism. The towns of Kobe and Osaka opened to foreign trade. Diplomatic representatives of the Treaty Powers received by the Emperor at Kyoto. Massacre of French bluejackets at Sakai.
	1869	The project of a railway line between Yokohama and Tokio is pushed onward by the Government. Marriage of the Emperor Mutsuhito to the Princess Haruko. The Duke of Edinburgh, the first European prince to visit Japan, arrives.
	1871	The end of feudalism. Local autonomy abolished by Imperial decree, and territorial nobles are removed from their positions as governors. Wholesale introduction of European reforms.
	1872	Opening of the Yokohama and Tokio railway, the first in Japan. Population of Japan, 33,110,793. Value of foreign trade, 49,742,831 yen, consisting of imports, 28,107,390 yen, and export, 21,635,441 yen (one yen equals about 4s. 3d.).
	1873	Gregorian calendar adopted.
	1874	Expedition against Formosa, whereby relations between China and Japan become strained. Opening of the Kobe and Osaka railway.
	1876	Treaty with Korea, which is formally recognized as an independent State. Allowances made to the nobles and samurai (the military class) ordered to be commuted by the Government. The wearing of swords by samurai prohibited.
	1877	Insurrection of Satsuma reactionaries quelled after great loss of life and at great expense. The last struggle against Western civilization and the first test of the new Imperial army. Railway between Osaka and Kyoto opened.
	1878	Okubo, the great Liberal minister, assassinated by sympathizers with the Satsuma rebellion.
	1880	New codes of law, founded on Code Napoléon, published.
	1885	A new system of local government is inaugurated.
	1889	Proclamation of new constitution by Emperor.
	1890	Four hundred and sixty thousand persons enfranchised by the new constitution.
	1894	The Sino-Japanese war. Japanese victories, by land at Puyong-yang and by sea at the mouth of the Yalu River. Invasion of Manchuria. New Treaty signed with Great Britain, abolishing extra-territoriality and opening all Japan to foreign trade and residence.
	1895	The Chinese Government send Li Hung-chang, Viceroy of Pechili and Grand Secretary of State, with Li Ching-long, to discuss terms of peace with Japan. A treaty of peace is signed at Shimonoseki on April 17th. Population of Japan, 42,270,620. Value of foreign trade, 265,372,756 yen, consisting of imports, 120,200,578 yen and exports, 136,112,178 yen (one yen equals 2s.).
	1899	Consular jurisdiction for foreign residents abolished. The island of Formosa ceded to Japan, as provided in the Treaty of 1894, and tariff autonomy restored to Japan.
	1900	Foreign legations in Peking besieged during the Boxer rebellion.
	1901	Restoration of peace.
	1902	First Treaty of Alliance concluded between Great Britain and Japan, January 30th.
	1904	War declared between Russia and Japan. The Japanese land in Korea. Port Arthur besieged by the Japanese.
	1905	The Russians, under General Stoessel, surrender Port Arthur on January 2nd; a loss to the Russian army of 39,000 men. The losses of the Third Japanese Army during the siege amounted to 92,000 men, of which 58,000 were casualties and 34,000 sick. The great battle of Mukden fought along a front of 200 miles. Both sides sustain enormous casualties, the Russians 97,000 and the Japanese 50,000. The Russians are defeated in the naval battle of Tsushima. The United States intervene in favour of peace. A treaty of peace is signed at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, on August 23rd, 1905, by which Russia cedes the half of Saghalien, annexed in 1875, surrenders Port Arthur and the Kwang Tung peninsula, and evacuates Manchuria. Korea is recognized as a Japanese sphere of influence. Convention between Japan and China signed at Peking on December 22nd, by which the cessions of Russia in Kwang Tung and Manchuria are confirmed. Second Treaty of Alliance concluded with Great Britain, August 12th.
	1907	Korean protectorate established by Japan.
	1908	Friction with the United States owing to the restrictions on Japanese immigration to California. United States fleet visits Japan in course of cruise round the world.
	1909	Prince Ito, statesman, the maker of Modern Japan, assassinated by a Korean at Harbin, October 20th.
	1910	Convention with Russia signed at St. Petersburg on July 4th, by which both Powers engage to observe <i>status quo</i> in Manchuria. Korea formally annexed to Japan by Imperial proclamation, August 23rd.
	1911	New Commercial Treaty with Great Britain signed in London, April 3rd, 1911. Third Treaty of Alliance with Great Britain signed in London, July 11th. New statutory customs tariff came into operation.
	1912	The Emperor Mutsuhito died and received the posthumous title of the Emperor Meiji. General Nogai, the captor of Port Arthur, and his wife "follow the Emperor in death." The Emperor Yoshihito, the one hundred and twenty-second sovereign in the direct line of descent from the Emperor Jimmu, ascends the throne. The new year-period of Taishō (Great Righteousness) begins.
	1913	Estimated population of Japan, 53,596,858, exclusive of Korea (15,164,066) and Formosa (3,543,789). Value of foreign trade, 1,361,891,857 yen, consisting of imports, 729,431,644 yen and exports, 632,460,213 yen (one yen equals 2s. 0.58d.).
	1914	Empress Haruko, consort of the Emperor Meiji, died April 11th. Received the posthumous title of Empress Shōkōn ("Manifest Virtue"). Ultimatum handed to German Ambassador in Tokio, demanding evacuation and surrender of Kiaochow (August 15th), and war declared on expiration of ultimatum (August 24th). Kiaochow invested and taken, with the co-operation of a British force, on November 7th, after operations on land and sea lasting a little over two months. German territorial expansion in the Far East stayed for ever.

CHAPTER XV

THE JAPANESE. By PROFESSOR JOSEPH H. LONGFORD

JAPAN claims to possess an authentic history dating from 660 B.C., the year of the accession to the Imperial throne of Jimmu, the first human sovereign, who, though a mortal, was of divine origin, the direct descendant of Tensho Daijin, the Sun-Goddess, "the great and august deity who rules the Heavens." In sober reality there is nothing worthy of the name of history till more than a thousand years later than this date, and the national records describing the reigns of Jimmu and his early successors deserve no more credence than do the supernatural myths which embody the faith of the Japanese as to the creation of the world and the divine descent of their rulers. Modern researches have shown that there



Painted specially for this work

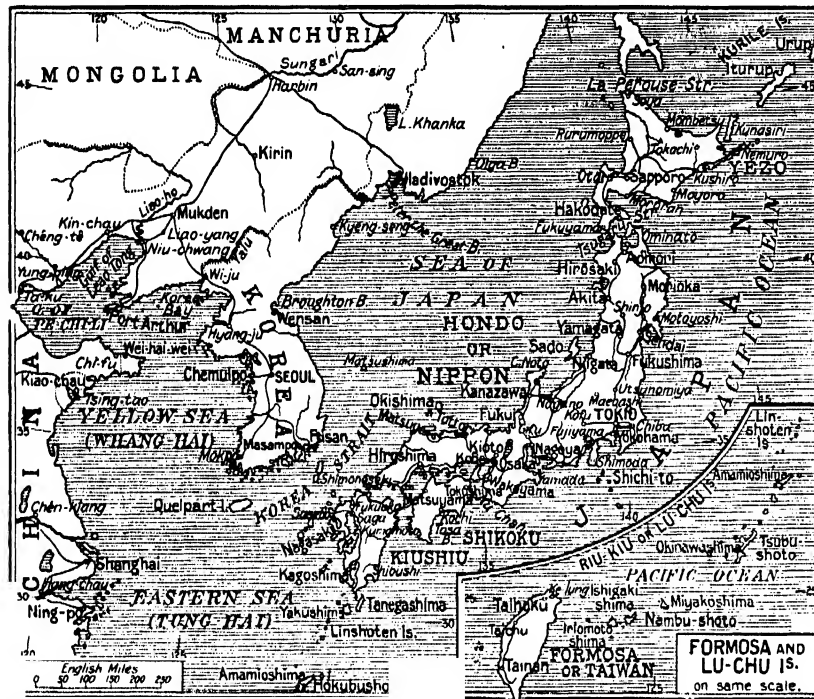
[By Justin Hill.]

THE EARLIEST INHABITANTS OF JAPAN.

There have been found traces of an early race. These people inhabited Japan previous to the invasion of the Ainu, but continued to exist during the latter's occupation, to whom the name of Cave-dwellers has been given. Their dwellings consisted of natural caves or caverns hollowed out by themselves.

were originally two races in Japan, one now termed "Cave-dwellers," of whom the only traces left are rude implements excavated from tombs, and the other, the Aino, of whom there are still survivors in Hokkaido, the most northern of the four large islands of the Empire. The Cave-dwellers were dispossessed by the Aino, who probably crossed from the continent of Asia to the northern islands, and thence spread all over the Archipelago. There were two subsequent invasions by people from Central Asia. The first body came from Korea and landed at Idzumo, and the second, kindred to the first, reached Japan at a later date, after a longer journey through China and Formosa, finally landing in the southern island of Kiusiu. The leader of the second body became in legend the Imperial, divinely descended Jimmu, who drove the Aino slowly northwards, and meeting his kindred at Yamato, there consolidated the two forces and was able to establish them in the district in permanence. This explanation is purely theoretical, but it is probably correct, and at all events it is the only one that can be given.

Jimmu reigned for seventy-five years, dying at the age of one hundred and twenty-seven, in 585 B.C. His dominions nominally included all that portion of modern Japan that lies to the south of a line drawn from Kioto to Idzumo on the west coast, the Aino autochthons having either been driven northwards of this line or absorbed among the Japanese conquering immigrants, the people to this day presenting physical characteristics which clearly mark their mixed descent from the aristocratic conquerors from the continental mainland and from the rude, uncultured aborigines. Jimmu's effective control was probably limited to the district immediately adjoining the province of Yamato, as the south and west continued for many centuries after his death in active rebellion, while the Aino on the northern frontier maintained a vigorous and effective resistance to the advance of the colonists, and both in the south and north the courage and military capacity of his successors and their people were subjected to constant tests. For a thousand years after his death history is purely legendary. The Japanese had not acquired the art of writing, and all knowledge of what occurred during this long period



Copyright of]

THE EMPIRE OF JAPAN.

[Hutchinson & Co.

The empire comprises a long cluster of islands in the Pacific Ocean, to the east of the Asiatic continent. It includes Formosa and the Pescadores in the south, and in the north the southern part of Sakhalin. Korea on the mainland was annexed in 1910.

across the seas and effected an almost bloodless conquest. Supernatural incidents were no more wanting in the story of her conquest than in that of the career of Yamatodake; but the whole story, though apocryphal in the extreme in its details, has been accepted, throughout all time, by the Japanese as founded on actual fact, and its results have influenced their foreign policy down to our own day. The Kings of the three kingdoms of Korea all solemnly promised the Empress "to pay homage and send tribute until the sun no longer rises in the East, but comes forth from the West; until the courses of the rivers turn backwards and the river pebbles ascend and become stars in Heaven."

The Koreans faithfully fulfilled their promises during the next four centuries. They had already acquired from their Chinese neighbours a far higher degree of civilization than the Japanese had ever known, and this they now shared with their conquerors. The art of writing was introduced by them into Japan in the fifth century, and teachers and Buddhist missionaries, both priests and nuns, came in rapid succession and in increasing numbers, not only from Korea, but from China, bringing with them

is founded solely on oral tradition, though the national annals are often almost meticulous in their details. History, such as it was, was with one exception entirely domestic. The south was reduced to order, and in the north the frontier line was gradually extended to the latitude of Tokio, the modern capital, the most distinguished agent in the northern conquest being the national hero, Prince Yamatodake. His life was one long career of romantic adventure, bristling throughout with supernatural incidents; and his memory is to this day hardly less fondly cherished by his countrymen than is that of St. Patrick by the people of Ireland. Domestic history was relieved by the invasion of Korea by the regent, Empress Jingo, who, in the third century of the Christian era, led a great army



Painted specially for this work

AINU CROSSING OVER FROM THE ISLANDS TO JAPAN.

[By Josiah Hill.]

The Ainu, of whom there are only a very few remaining at the present day, probably came from the north of Asia by way of Kamchatka and the Kurile Islands, gradually making their way southwards. They were very primitive in every respect, but possessed the savage qualities of bravery, honesty and faithfulness. Physically the men were strong, though of low stature, and their bodies were thickly covered with hair, while long bushy beards reached far below their chests.



Painted specially for this work]

[By Justin Hill.

JIMMU DRIVING AINUS NORTHWARDS.

It is from colonists who settled in the island as a result of two invasions while Japan was still occupied by Ainus that the present Japanese trace their descent. They were probably of Malay origin. About 660 B.C. Jimmu defeated and drove the Ainus northward and founded a kingdom, and it is from Jimmu that the present Emperor of Japan traces his descent in a direct line.

the knowledge of the arts, sciences, laws, literature and of the time-honoured social and political systems of China, and combining to pave the way for the first great reform in Japanese national polity, the reform which established her system of civilization on the Chinese model so completely that it continued unchanged till the second great reform in our own time, when the Chinese was discarded in favour of the Western system.

In the year 552 A.D., the tribute-bearing envoy from Korea brought with him, among other articles, an image, fashioned in gold and copper, of the divine Buddha and some volumes of the Buddhist scriptures, which he presented to the Emperor, saying as he did so :

" This doctrine is amongst all doctrines the most excellent. But it is hard to explain and hard to comprehend. Even Confucius has not attained to a knowledge of it. It can create religious merit and retribution without measure and without bounds, and so lead on to a full appreciation of the highest wisdom. Imagine a man in possession of treasures to his heart's content so that he might satisfy all his wishes in proportion as he used them. Thus it is with the treasure of this wonderful doctrine. Every prayer is fulfilled and nothing is wanting."

The Emperor, hearing these words, leaped for joy and said :

" Never from former days until now have we had the opportunity of listening to so wonderful a doctrine."

Notwithstanding the Emperor's early enthusiasm, the new religion at first made slow progress. Pestilence broke out in the land, and the sufferings of the people were attributed to its evil influence. Attempts were made in vain to destroy the holy image. It was thrown into a river and the temple that had been built for it was burnt. Thereupon lightning fell from a cloudless sky and destroyed the

Imperial palace, and the wicked ministers who had counselled the destruction of the image. It was, therefore, recovered from the river and a new temple was built for it ; but pestilence again broke out, and once more the image was abandoned to the river, and the nuns who had been entrusted with its charge were publicly flogged. Still there was no abatement of the misfortunes that were falling on the nation. Pestilence continued its ravages. The Emperor sickened and died, and the people asked : " Is this a punishment for the destruction of the image of Buddha ? " Again the image was recovered from its river-bed and devoutly cared for by a devotee until the great temple of Tenkoji was built for it in Nagoya, and there it remains to this day.

As it was with the holy image, so it was also with the new religion, in turn favoured and contemned ; but ere half a century had passed it had obtained a firm foothold in the court, and its ultimate triumph became assured in the reign of the Empress Suiko, the thirty-third sovereign of the Imperial line in direct succession from Jimmu, and the first Empress to occupy the throne in her own right. It was in the year 593 that she became Empress at the age of forty years, and her reign lasted for thirty-five years. During nearly the whole of it her trusted minister and counsellor was her nephew, Prince Mumayado (" stable door "), so called from the fact that his birth took place suddenly at the entrance of the Imperial stables, while his mother, the Empress Consort, was making a visit of inspection of the palace grounds. He is, however, better known in history by the posthumous title of Shotoku Daishi, " the Great Apostle of true virtue," conferred on him by the Buddhist priests ; and high sounding as the title is, it was amply merited by his talents, his virtues, and the great services which he was enabled to render to his



Painted specially for this work

[By Walter Tyndale, R.I.]

INTRODUCTION OF THE IMAGE OF BUDDHA INTO JAPAN.

It was in the reign of the Emperor Kimmei (539-571) that Buddhism began to exercise an influence in Japan. In that reign the King of Pekche in Korea sent an image of Buddha and volumes of the Sutras, or canonical books, as a present to the Emperor, who had the new creed investigated by one of his ministers, but it was not until later that the religion came into popular favour.



Painted specially for this work

IMAGE OF BUDDHA THROWN INTO THE RIVER.

[By Justin Hill.]

After the image of Buddha had been received and entrusted to one Soga, a great pestilence broke out in the land, which was immediately ascribed to this insult to the old gods. Accordingly the image was thrown into the river, and the temple in which it was kept burnt to the ground.

sovereign and his country. Professor Chamberlain calls him the Constantine of Japanese Buddhism. He was a profound scholar, a soldier, a statesman, a philanthropist, a law-giver, as well as a religious reformer.

It was through him that Buddhism became firmly established as the religion of the Japanese people, displacing for twelve centuries the ancient indigenous cult of Shintoism, the worship of the Gods of Heaven, of the divine ancestors of the Emperors, and of Nature; and it was through Buddhism that Chinese learning and polity became equally firmly implanted in Japan, raising the people from ignorance and barbarism to culture and civilization. Buddhism had been slowly progressing ever since the first presentation of the holy statue; but it was through Shotoku Daishi's influence that it became not only the religion of the court, but of the masses throughout the Empire. Temples were built and images, cast in bronze, were erected everywhere, and reverence for the three treasures, Buddha, the Law and the Priesthood, were inculcated in every heart. In its train followed the study of the ancient classics, and of all the arts and sciences of China, the introduction of the Chinese calendar, of the gradations of rank, of court ceremonies, and of a centralized, bureaucratic Government, with ministers who held their offices at the will of, and were responsible to, an absolute sovereign. Even the very name of the Empire was adopted from China.

Hitherto its inhabitants had called it Yamato, extending the name of the central province to the whole Empire; now it became Japan or Nippon, both of these terms being derived from Jih-pen, the source of the sun, the name given by the Chinese to the Empire which lay to the east of their own and over which the sun rose. All this was mainly the work of Shotoku Daishi. He died in 621, and with his death ended the first period of Japanese history—that of the mythological and dark ages. Henceforward all is clear, and in writing of the succeeding centuries we are dealing with authentic history. Normal facts henceforth replace supernatural phenomena, and actors who possessed

divine attributes and accomplished their ends with direct material help from the gods give way to human personages, relying solely on their own abilities.

The Emperors, who had hitherto occupied the throne, had invariably been absolute sovereigns both in fact and name. They personally administered their governments, were the leaders of their armies, the arbiters of the state policy, and the final authority at whose will all the ministers of the state held their offices. There was no established capital ; indeed, there was no town. The palace was the centre of the government, and as death rendered inauspicious the continued occupation of the dwelling in which it occurred, a new palace was built in another locality on the accession of every new sovereign. The more complicated system of administration that was now established entailed the provision of more extensive and permanent accommodation for the court and the officers of state too costly to be changed with every reign. China, too, had its permanent capital, and was to be imitated in this as in all other respects, and plans were prepared for the construction and laws drawn up for the administration of the Imperial capital of Japan, in both cases the Chinese models being again followed. The site chosen was at Nara, a spot rendered eminently beautiful by all those charms of nature in her fairest aspects that are so abundant in Japan. Here the court found its first abiding place, and here it remained for seventy-five years, a period that is remembered as the Nara epoch in the national history.

Seven sovereigns, three of whom were Empresses, reigned at Nara. All, under the refining influence of Buddhism, were devoted patrons of art and literature, and learning was spread through the court by scholars who had acquired a profound knowledge of the written language and literature of China. Then Japan began to have a literature of her own. The two great national histories, the *Kojiki*, or "Record of Ancient Matters," and the *Ni-hon-gi*, the "Chronicles of Japan," were compiled, as was also the *Man-yo-shu*, or "Collection of One Thousand Leaves," an anthology of the poetry composed by the poets and courtiers whose work still causes the Nara epoch to be called the golden age of Japanese literature. The city itself was beautified by grand temples, fronted by imposing gateways, to which worshippers were summoned by deep-toned bells that sounded solemnly through groves of gigantic cryptomeria and evergreen oaks, by pagodas, and by an immense bronze statue of Buddha that survives to this day ; and all the best talents of architectural and decorative artists were devoted both to its temples and palaces, to do honour to the new religion and to the sovereigns who were its devoted followers.



Painted specially for this work

IMAGE OF BUDDHA RECOVERED FROM THE RIVER.

[By Justin Hall.]

After the image had been thrown into the river lightning fell from a cloudless sky and consumed the Imperial palace. Therefore the image was ordered to be recovered, and Soga was permitted to build a new palace for it. From this time onwards the Buddhist religion acquired more and more adherents, and further images were made and others imported.



By permission of]

[The Victoria and Albert Museum,

Japanese pottery was first made in Seto in 1230 A.D., and the above local print illustrates a particular pottery in that province.

priests of the Empire, and as such gradually acquired an influence which enabled them to obtain a control of the civil as well as of the religious administration. In the seventh century, Kamatari, the head of the family at the time, became first minister of state, and assumed the name of Fujiwara, "Wisteria field," taking the wisteria as his family crest, and founding the family that survives to this day, and is regarded in its illustrious descent and in the great part it has played in the national history as second only to the Imperial family.

His descendants also succeeded him in office, and their influence in the court was interrupted only during the Nara epoch, when for a time they had to give way to the Buddhist priests. They took the lead in causing the removal of the capital from Nara to Kioto, and there they became all-powerful, reducing their Imperial masters to a nominal dignity and subjecting all the nobles of their own rank to their authority. The office of Kwambaku was created in their favour, and made the highest of all official positions, the sole channel through which all state affairs could be brought to the knowledge of the Emperor; and the new office, as well as the High Priesthood, became hereditary in their family. The office was also vested with the legal right to the regency during the minority of an Emperor. The Fujiwara used their powers to the

The Buddhist priesthood were all-powerful. The time came when their influence and increasing arrogance had to be checked, and this could only be done by once more changing the capital, by removing the court from a locality which had become the head-quarters of an arrogant and intolerant hierarchy that threatened to do infinite harm to the Empire. The Emperor Kwammu, the fiftieth sovereign of the Imperial line, accordingly forsook his capital in 784, and ten years later, other residences having been tried and found wanting in the meantime, founded a new city at Kioto, a city which continued to be the capital of Japan and the home of its sovereigns till the year 1868. The new capital was at first designated by its founder as Heianjo, the "City of Peace," and it retained this title for nearly four centuries. Then what is called the Heian epoch of history came to an end with the establishment of the first Shogunate; the original name was lost, and the city came to be known simply as Kioto—the capital.

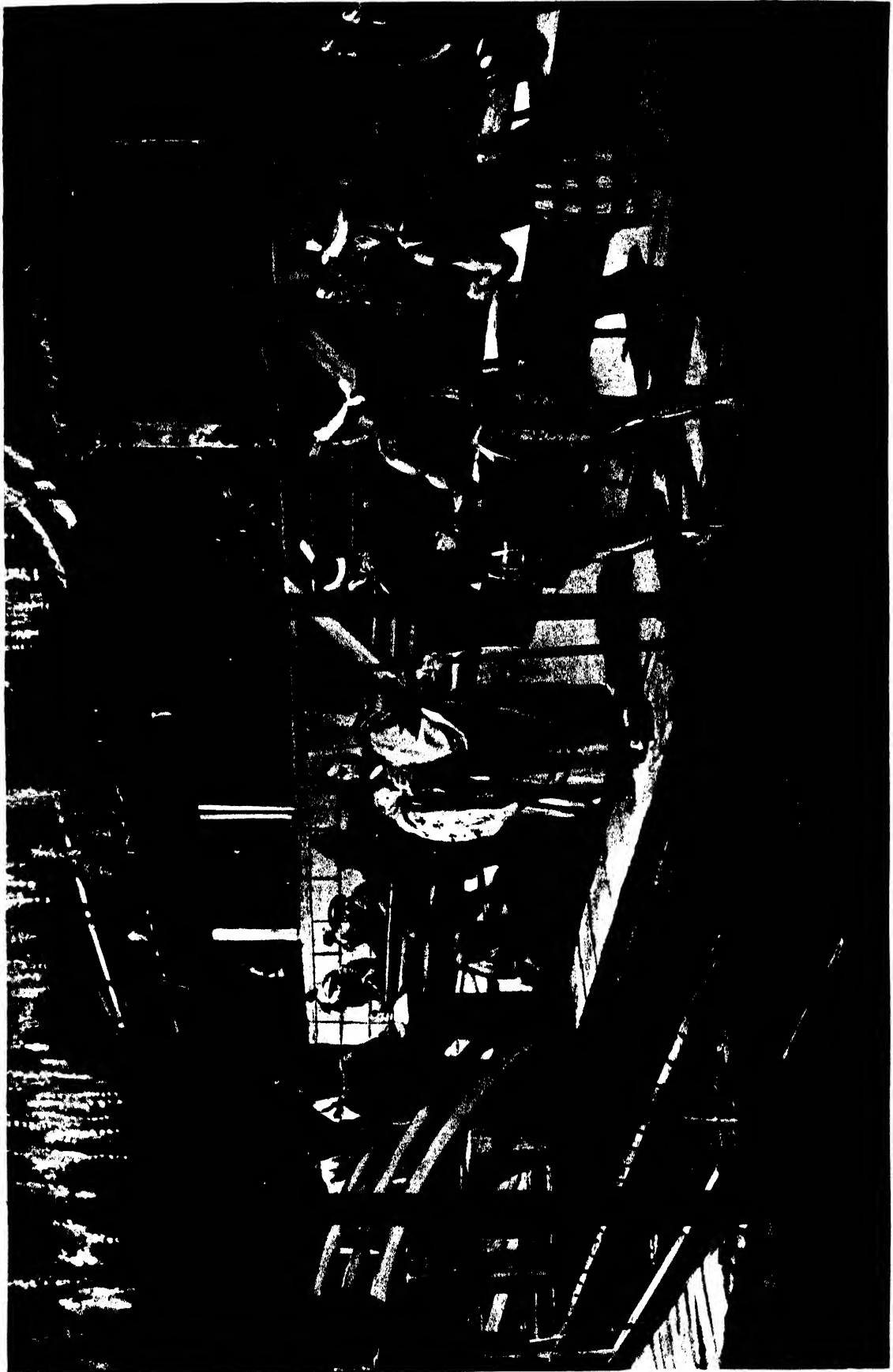
Among the retinue by which Jimmu's progenitor, the grandson of the Sun-Goddess, was attended when he descended to earth from Heaven, was a Heavenly deity, known as Ama-tsu-koyane. His earthly descendants became the hereditary high



By permission of]

[Wilson Crevelton, Esq.,

A very early piece of Japanese silk brocade of the Nara period, and dating from about 700 A.D.



Painted specially for this work

BUILDING A NEW PALACE FOR THE EMPEROR.

The earliest palaces were merely wooden huts with thatched roofs. But in the eighth century, when the court was at Nara, and afterwards at Kioto in the ninth century, architecture made great strides under the influence of Chinese architects and artists. The buildings were then composed of wood, often highly ornamented, and roofed with red tiles. It was the custom in medieval Japan to abandon the residence of the Emperor at his death, and to build a new palace for his successor. The presence of a dead body in it was said to render it unclean, and no longer fit for habitation.

[By H. M. Burton.]



Painted specially for this work

[By Justin Hill.]

THE BREWING OF SAKÉ IN THE SEVENTH CENTURY.

Saké is brewed chiefly from rice. It is pale yellow in colour, and in flavour, though somewhat acid, resembles very pale sherry. Osaka has always been noted for its saké, which is said to have derived its name from the town.

utmost for the aggrandisement of their own family. They filled all the offices of state with its members; they married their daughters to the emperors and princes, so that they were closely related to the Imperial family; and whenever an Emperor showed the least sign of any spirit of independence, he was promptly forced to abdicate and replaced on the throne by a minor, the grandson on his mother's side of a Fujiwara, and the Kwambaku, as regent, entered on a new lease of undisputed omnipotence. Two Emperors, each of exceptional ability and courage, vigorously endeavoured to free themselves from their humiliating bondage. One of them was aided by Michizane Sugawara, the head of a family of scarcely less distinguished lineage than the Fujiwara, who is still reputed to have been the greatest Chinese scholar that Japan ever produced in any age. But the struggle in both instances failed. The Emperors were forced to abdicate and retire to a monastery—the usual retreat for dethroned sovereigns—and Michizane and all his personal adherents were banished from the capital to remote provinces on the very outskirts of civilization. Michizane died in exile, but his spirit continued to haunt the scene in which he had played a great part, and misfortunes fell not only upon his enemies, but on the nation. At last his virtues were recognized. Posthumous honours were heaped upon him, but the angry spirit was not appeased till the final and greatest tribute of deification had been rendered to his memory. Temples were erected everywhere in his honour, and to this day the “Heavenly spirit who fills the Heavens” is one of the most widely-worshipped deities in the Shinto pantheon.

For three centuries the Fujiwara used their powers in the best interests of the nation and governed both wisely and well. But, as years rolled on, the luxurious and effeminate court-life of Kioto told upon them. They sank into indolence and apathy, and, coincidentally with their mental and physical

decay, another influence steadily grew, which in the end shattered their domination and became the foundation of the system of feudalism that was the chief feature in the social organization of Japan during the succeeding seven centuries.

The formation of a distinct military class dates from the introduction of Chinese civilization. Throughout the Fujiwara domination it had been gradually growing in numbers, and its members, constantly employed in active service on the frontiers and acquiring more and more the pride of arms, began to regard with contempt the lotus-eating courtiers of Kioto who governed them. As the Fujiwara restricted all civil employment at the capital to their own kindred, the scions of other great families were compelled to have recourse to military service, and among these families, two—the Taira and the Minamoto—were pre-eminent, in the lustre of their descent from the Imperial line, in the bravery and ability of their chiefs, and in the number of retainers whom they were able to attract to their standards. In their degeneracy the Fujiwara quarrelled among themselves. A controversy arose in the court as to the succession to the Imperial throne, and the Fujiwara were divided as to the claims of the rival candidates. The chiefs of the two military families interfered, and once their influence had been felt in Kioto that of the Fujiwara was at an end. When the authority of their common rival had been broken, the two chiefs turned their arms against each other, and then began the wars of the Gempei—Gempei being the sinicized pronunciation of Minamoto and Taira—which lasted for thirty years, and have been aptly compared to our Wars of the Roses. Their object was, however, not to decide as to which of two rival dynasties should occupy the throne, but as to which of the two strongest nobles should administer the government in the name of a sovereign who was acknowledged by both. The whole story of the wars is full of romance. It teems with incidents of the most devoted and chivalrous heroism, not only on the part of men, but of women, with battles both on land and sea bravely fought to the bitter end by both sides, with sadness as well as triumph, with black treachery as well as the most uncompromising loyalty. The names of many of the knights who fought in it are still cherished as those of the brightest examples in history of chivalry in its noblest Yamato spirit; and women, who sacrificed their lives as freely as their lords, and sometimes, for the cause's sake, their good names, are equally cherished in the memories of their modern sisters as noble examples of the fulfilment of the highest womanly duties.

At first, the Taira, under their great leader, Kiyomori, gained the upper hand, and retained it for twenty-seven years. Then Kiyomori died, and the Minamoto, who had been scattered and were in hiding in remote districts, were reassembled under



Painted specially for this work

[By M. Donovan, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

THE CAMPAIGN OF YORIYOSHI IN MUTSU.

Towards the close of the campaign the enemy sought refuge behind a stockade on marshy ground. Their leader, who was of enormous stature, came out and fought alone. He was wounded and taken prisoner, and after being beheaded Yoriyoshi sent his head to the Emperor.



[By kind permission of]

[Wilson Crendson, Esq.]

The above painting is the work of Shobun, who introduced the style of ancient Chinese artists into Japan about 1420.

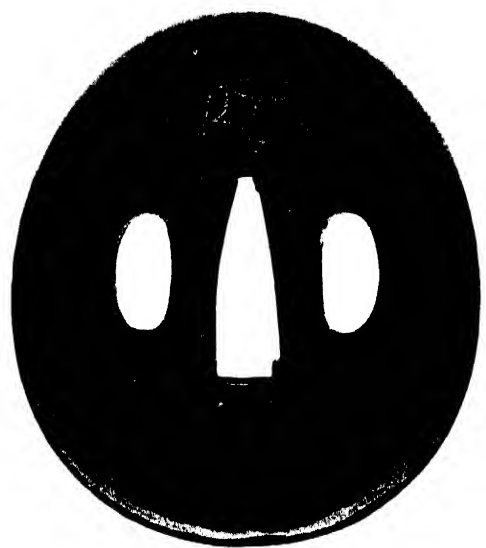
Yoritomo, the son of a former leader, who had grown to manhood while the great enemy of his family was at the zenith of his fame and power. The war was renewed, and this time every advantage was on the side of the Minamoto. Their enemies were defeated in battle after battle, driven from Kioto, and finally overwhelmed in the great naval battle of Dan-no-ura in the Straits of Shimonoseki. Mercy to beaten foes was even less a characteristic of Japanese in the Middle Ages than it was of contemporaneous Europeans. The Taira had shown little to the vanquished Minamoto. The Minamoto in their turn of triumph showed none to the Taira. The men of all degrees were slaughtered without pity; the women, who did not share the same fate, gentle ladies of high degree and serving-maids alike, were only spared to be consigned to lives of shame. The great Taira family was practically annihilated.

Yoritomo and his followers, during the years of their subjection, had found homes and safety in the Eastern provinces—where Tokio now is—which were then the remote backwoods of the Empire. There Yoritomo had grown from childhood, and there all his affections were centred. Kiyomori lived at Kioto, where the Emperor, in whose name he ruled, was at his hand. Yoritomo founded a new city at Kamakura and made it his capital, and it quickly became both populous and wealthy, so that it more than rivalled the ancient Imperial capital. He obtained from the Emperor the title of Sei-i-Tai-Shogun, "Barbarian-repressing-generalissimo," the highest military title, abbreviated in daily use to Shogun, that could be granted to a subject. Formerly the holder had been vested with purely military functions. Yoritomo arrogated to himself all the civil as well as the military administration of the Empire, which he governed, always in the name of the Emperor under whose commission he acted, from his capital at Kamakura as arbitrarily but far more effectively than the Fujiwara had done when at the very height of their power. Military governors, chosen from the ablest of his followers, were sent to the provinces, taxes were collected, agriculture and industry encouraged; and with the establishment of peace and the security of life and property, the country rapidly regained all the prosperity it had lost during the long wars.

This was the beginning of the dual form of government which lasted from the close of the twelfth century till 1868, which was a source of much bewilderment to Europeans and led them into many errors in the early stages of their intercourse with Japan. At Kioto there was always the legitimate Emperor, the descendant of the gods, their vicegerent upon earth, vested with many of their attributes, and the acknowledged source of all authority and honour. At Kamakura, subsequently at Kioto, and finally at Yedo (Tokio), there was the Shogun, who, in the name of the Emperor and by his commission, exercised all the executive authority, while the Emperors, in their court at Kioto, were mere puppets, occupied solely in sensual pleasures, or, at best, with poetry,

Yoritomo, the son of a former leader, who had grown to manhood while the great enemy of his family was at the zenith of his fame and power. The war was renewed, and this time every advantage was on the side of the Minamoto. Their enemies were defeated in battle after battle, driven from Kioto, and finally overwhelmed in the great naval battle of Dan-no-ura in the Straits of Shimonoseki. Mercy to beaten foes was even less a characteristic of Japanese in the Middle Ages than it was of contemporaneous Europeans. The Taira had shown little to the vanquished Minamoto. The Minamoto in their turn of triumph showed none to the Taira. The men of all degrees were slaughtered without pity; the women, who did not share the same fate, gentle ladies of high degree and serving-maids alike, were only spared to be consigned to lives of shame. The great Taira family was practically annihilated.

Yoritomo and his followers, during the years of their subjection, had found homes and safety in the Eastern provinces—where Tokio now is—which were then the remote backwoods of the Empire. There Yoritomo had grown from childhood, and there all his affections were centred. Kiyomori lived at Kioto, where the Emperor, in whose name he ruled, was at his hand. Yoritomo



[By kind permission of]

[Wilson Crendson, Esq.]

A Tsuba, or sword-guard, made of iron, and inscribed: "Presented in Korea by the Prince Kigomasa." The Korean wars were from 1592-1597.

art and music, secluded from all their subjects, none of whom, outside the aristocratic circle of the court, was ever permitted to look upon their faces. So great were the dignity and visible strength of the Shogun, that Europeans, both the Jesuit missionaries and the Portuguese, Dutch and Spanish traders of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries as well as the treaty-making diplomatists of the nineteenth century, believed him to be the *de jure* sovereign, and dealt with him as such. In the provinces, the military governors, at first the vassals and nominees of Yoritomo, in time made their offices hereditary, and finally became the owners instead of the administrators of their districts, each surrounding himself according to his wealth with a greater or less number of armed retainers, who owed all the means of their support, both for themselves and their families, and all their allegiance to him



Painted specially for this work

GREAT CONTROVERSY AMONGST THE FUJIWARA FACTION.

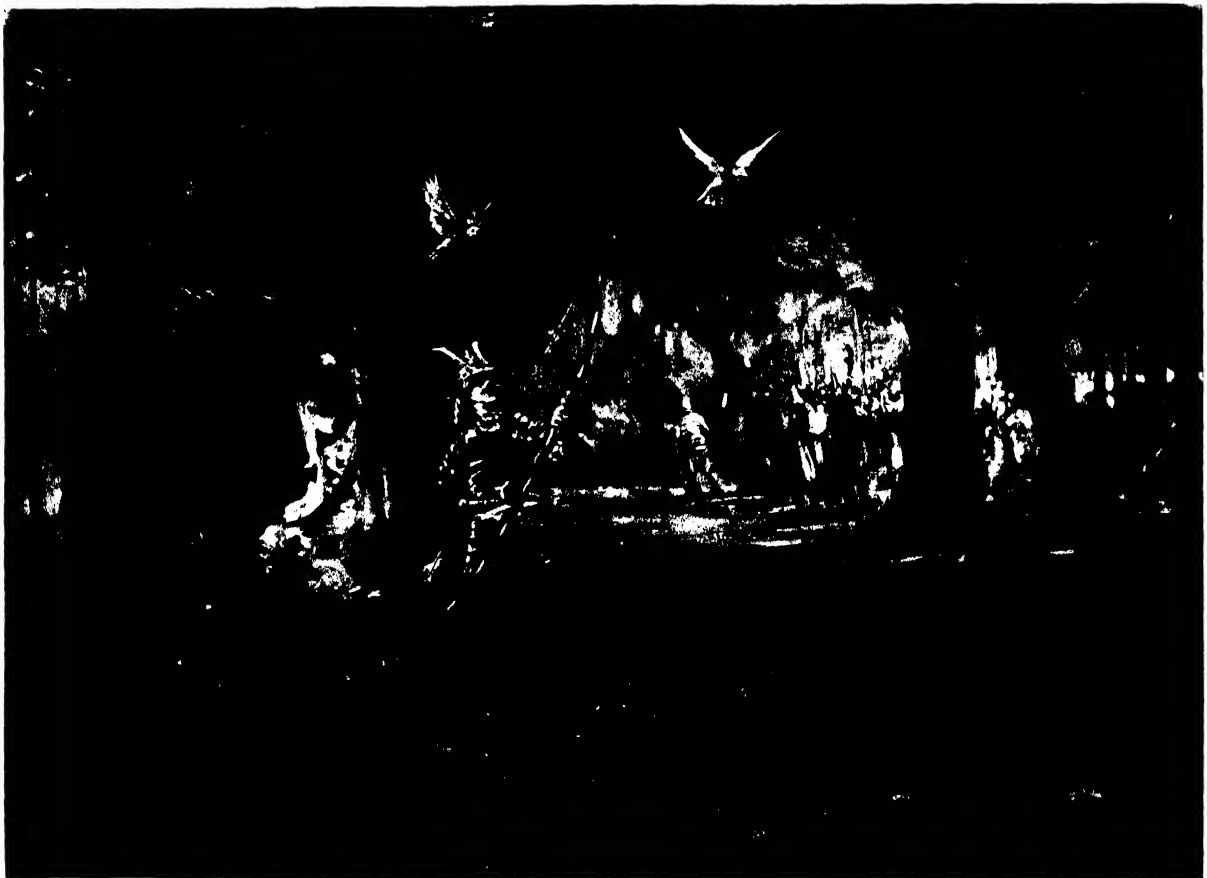
[By John de G. Reppan.]

During the Middle Ages the Fujiwara were a powerful family closely related to the Imperial house by ties of marriage. For many years they governed wisely and well, but at length their vigour became impaired, and they disagreed among themselves even when such a vital point as the succession to the throne was in dispute. By this indecision the influence of the Fujiwara came to an end.

alone, and who formed an exclusive, hereditary military caste, with social privileges that placed them on a plane far above that of the rest of the citizens of the Empire. The Governors were the Daimio, the feudal lords, and their retainers the Samurai, who have played so great a part in the history of Japan. Below them were the commoners—peasants, artisans and traders—who had no share in political or military service, whose lot in life was to minister to the requirements of those above them, and who, though free in name, were until the restoration of 1868 in a condition that in all its incidents was but little removed from that of abject serfdom.

Yoritomo died in 1199, and left two sons who were mere youths at his death, but both met with violent deaths within twenty years, and the direct line of the first of the Shoguns became extinct. A new order of affairs then arose. The dual became a triple and subsequently, for a brief period, even a quadruple form of government.

Yoritomo's wife was the lady Masago, a daughter of a family of the military nobility known as the Hojo, whom he espoused, while still a fugitive, under romantic circumstances similar to those by which



Painted specially for this work

AN INCIDENT IN THE JAPANESE "WAR OF THE ROSES."

[By M. Doraston, R.B.A., N.B.A.]

After Prince Yoritomo was defeated by Kiyomori he and six of his followers concealed themselves in the hollow of a tree. They were pursued, and a soldier (really friendly) who was sent to examine the tree pretended to do so by inserting his spear in the hollow, whereupon he dislodged two doves and thus diverted the prince's enemy.

Lochinvar won his bride. She is the most prominent woman in all Japanese authentic history, and is entitled to take a place among the historical women of the world hardly lower than that assigned to Queen Elizabeth or to Tsu-hsi, the great Dowager Empress of China. She was devoted to the family from which she sprang, and all her energy and ability were, when both her sons died, employed in transferring the executive authority of the Empire to her relatives, and securing its permanent retention in their hands. So successful was she, and so worthy of her assistance were those in whose favour it was given, that the Hojo ruled the Empire for one hundred and fourteen years. None of them, however, either aspired to or received the title of Shogun. They were content to call themselves Shikken, or "Power-holders," and ostensibly to act in the names of puppet Shoguns, nominated at Hojo dictation from members of the Imperial or Fujiwara families, by the puppet Emperors. This continued while the chiefs of the Hojo conserved the ability and vigour of the earlier members of their line; but as time went on the history of the Emperors and the Fujiwara was repeated in their case. The Shikken ceased to concern himself in the active discharge of his duties, leaving that to ministers termed Kanrio, taken from his own household, and sank into the condition of an idle, dissipated voluptuary, rapacious, tyrannical and cruel. Then was the time of the quadruple system of government. There were four degrees in the chief authority of the Empire, the Kanrio, who acted in the name of the Shikken, who in his turn acted in the name of the Shogun, who finally acted in the name of, and derived all his authority from, the Emperor, the first named being the *de facto* and the last the *de jure* head of the state. Such a state of things could not be allowed to continue, especially when the Kanrio were steeped in corruption and sacrificed the general welfare of the Empire to their own selfish interests, and a national rising took

place under three great soldiers, Kusunoki Masahige, Nitta Yoshisada and Ashikaga Takauji. All three are noted characters in history, the first two as loyal and devoted soldiers, who, in their lives, realized the noblest ideals of unselfish patriotism and unswerving devotion to duty that are inculcated by Bushido—the code of the Samurai—the last as the founder of a new dynasty of Shoguns.

The rising was successful. The Hojo were overthrown. Kamakura was taken after a fierce fight and all its wealth and prosperity destroyed, the city reduced to a heap of ashes, and the Hojo adherents slaughtered without mercy as the Taira had been one hundred and fifty years previously. Kusunoki and Nitta had both fallen, and Ashikaga, as unscrupulous and self-seeking as they were the reverse, used the power which victory gave him to found a new dynasty of Shoguns, with privileges even more extensive than any that Yoritomo had claimed. Hitherto the Shoguns had always been ostensibly nominated by the Emperor. Ashikaga, disregarding this formality, made the office hereditary in his own family, and he and his descendants held it for two hundred and forty years. Previous Shoguns had always resided at Kamakura. Destroyed though the great city had been, it soon rose again from its ashes; but the Ashikaga Shoguns fixed their court and government at Kyoto, where, in all the splendour of wealth and power, they completely overshadowed the Imperial court, which was as poor as it was impotent. Just as the Nara epoch was the golden age of Japanese literature, so was that of the Ashikaga the golden age of Japanese art. Painting, the drama, literature, and æsthetic gardening—all ministered to the refined luxury of the Shogun's court, and masters and craftsmen whose works or teaching are still among the greatest glories of Japan there found encouragement and reward for their talents.



Painted specially for this work

THE DANCER SHIDZUKA GOZEN PERFORMS BEFORE MASAGO.

[By Walter Tyndale, R.I.]

At the risk of her life Shidzuka refused to betray her lover, Yoshitsune, who had fled as an outlaw from his brother Yoritomo. Masago, Yoritomo's wife, induced her to give a court performance, and Shidzuka won the applause of all save Yoritomo. He wished to put her to death for her intimacy with Yoshitsune, but Masago pleaded for her.

On the other side, the state of the Empire was pitiable. The local power of the Daimio continued to grow, and each became an autocratic sovereign in his own fief. Might was the only right recognized by them, and each was constantly endeavouring to aggrandize himself at the expense of his neighbours. Civil war was constant, and the peasantry were as wretched as those of Germany in the suffering of the Thirty Years' War, while the condition of Kioto itself was, as regards the maintenance of order, worse than that of Medieval Rome or Edinburgh under the early Stuarts. Kamakura was



Painted specially for this work

[By John de G. Begun.]

YORITOMO RECEIVING THE TITLE OF SEI-I-TAI-SHOGUN.

During Yoritomo's successful administration state councils were established and the feudal system initiated. As a recognition of his power he received from the court the title of Sei-i-Tai-Shogun, the highest military title ever bestowed on a subject, which was borne by the real rulers of Japan down to 1868.

bowing, Hideyoshi affords the sole example in all the history of Japan, both ancient and modern, of a man who rose from the very humblest class to a position of supreme authority in the Empire. He was the son not only of a peasant, but of one of the very poorest and humblest of peasants, and in his youth hawked firewood in the streets of his native village. His first promotion was to be groom to Nobunaga, to wait on foot on his master on horseback, to run beside or to hold his horse. Thenceforward his rise was rapid and continuous, and Nobunaga's horseboy became his most efficient and trusted general and his successor in the military dictatorship, with an undisputed authority that extended far beyond any that had ever previously been exercised by either Shogun or Shikken. None

again sacked and destroyed, and this time its ruin was final.

History repeated itself in the case of the Ashikaga as it had done with the Hojo, the Minamoto and the Fujiwara. The last representatives of their line allowed the executive to slip from their hands in everything but name, and even the name was finally taken from them by Nobunaga, a feudal noble, who by his military genius raised himself to the foremost place in influence and power among his compeers, and finally became the military dictator of the Empire. On his death, at assassin's hands, in the year 1582, the power, which he had held for nine years, fell to Hideyoshi, a general who had been his right hand throughout all the later stages of his career.

Hideyoshi is unique among the historical characters of Japan. He not only proved himself to be a general of irresistible genius, both in the field and in military administration, but a constructive and executive statesman of the very foremost rank. In both these respects he stood on no higher level than that of his remote predecessor, Yoritomo, or his immediate successor, Iyeyasu; but he differed from them in that, while they both started in life with the prestige of noble birth, possessed of historic names, before whose owners no noble in the land felt humbled in

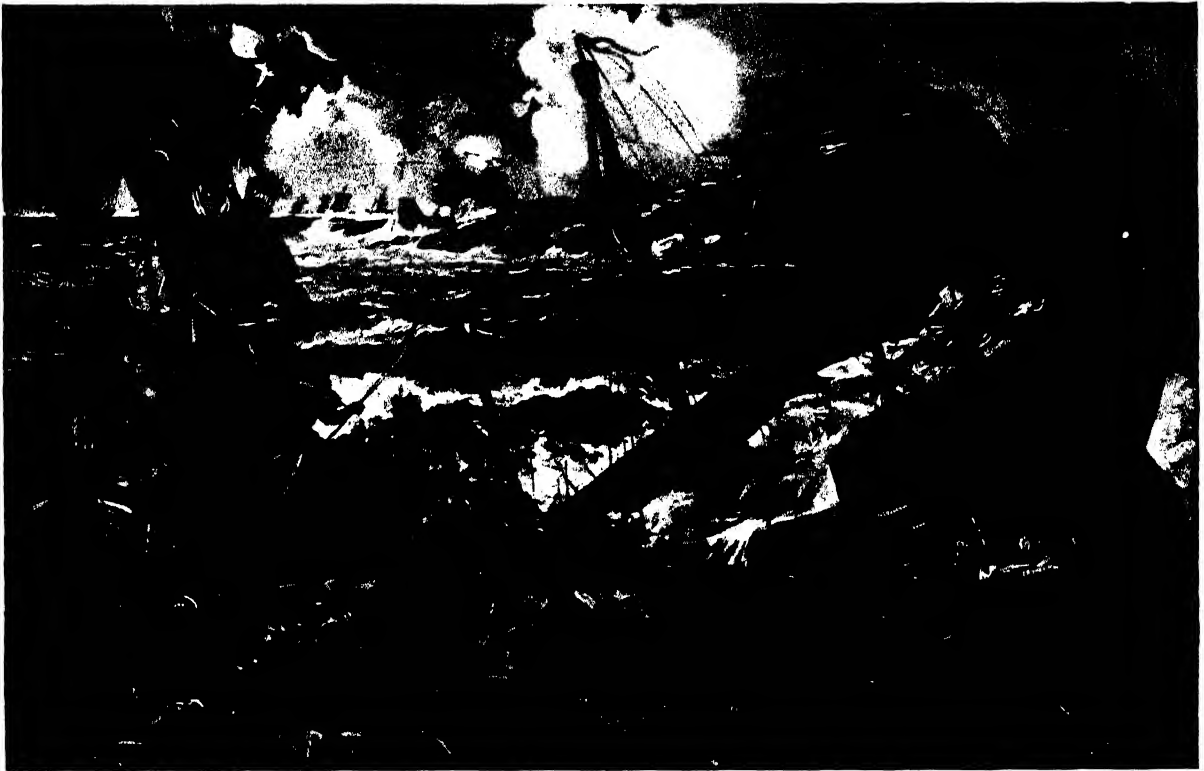


Painted specially for this work]

[By W. S. Baydapioulos,

THE CAPTURE OF KAMAKURA, 1333.

As Nitta Yoshisada advanced to the attack of Kamakura he found it strongly fortified both inland and on the seashore. The latter gave advantage to an assault, but ships lay off the shore ready to make a flank attack. So being without hope of victory he prayed to the Sea God for help, and cast his sword to the waters as a votive offering. The next day, as if by miracle, the ships were carried by the tide out to sea. Yoshisada and his army then advanced to the attack, and after carrying the defences by storm, they burnt the city, which had been the glory of Yoritomo.



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

THE DEFEAT OF KUBLAI KHAN'S FLEET, 1281.

The great fleet of the Mongol chief, Kublai Khan, set out to invade Japan with an army of one hundred thousand men. It at length anchored off the coast of Kiusiu, but was thrown into terrible confusion by a typhoon. Ships which were not sunk were attacked by small but numerous Japanese craft. The expedition was an utter failure, and its fate bears comparison with that of the Spanish Armada.

hitherto had ever held effective authority over the remote Western provinces of the main island or the islands of Shikoku and Kiusiu. There powerful feudal nobles still exercised a sway that was independent in everything but name, hardly condescending to render a contemptuous pretence at recognition of the "Mayors of the Palace" at Kamakura or Kyoto. Hideyoshi forced all Japan from Satsuma in the extreme south to Mutsu in the extreme north (Hokkaido was still a *terra incognita*) to acknowledge his supremacy, and for the first time in history the whole Empire of Japan submitted to one master and the centralized Government which he founded. Peace reigned unbroken for the first time for three centuries. Brigandage and piracy were at an end, and with security of life, liberty and property, agricultural, commercial and industrial prosperity became universal. Kyoto once more became the "Castle of Peace" where the Emperor, though still politically impotent, held his court in personal safety, while Osaka began to acquire its position, which it retains to this day, as the first commercial city of Japan.

Nobunaga left two sons who, he hoped, would succeed to all his wealth and honours. Both were set aside by Hideyoshi, his most trusted follower. Hideyoshi died in 1598, leaving one son who, at his death, was only five years old. The father, on his deathbed, committed the infant son to the guardianship of Tokugawa Iyeyasu, who had been in long and close association with him, who had fought beside him in many campaigns, who had been rewarded for his services with the enfeoffment of the Kwanto, the eight rich and fertile provinces that lie around Tokio, and who, as feudal lord of all these provinces, with a huge army of devoted samurai at his call, was in riches and power second only to Hideyoshi himself. The old, old story in Japan was repeated, and as Hideyoshi dealt with Nobunaga's sons, so did his trusted and faithful Iyeyasu with his. The infant son was, like Nobunaga's, set aside: the adherents of Hideyoshi, who, more faithful than Iyeyasu, took up his cause, were defeated and scattered on the battle-field of Seki-ga-hara with such slaughter that forty thousand heads of the slain were collected

on the field and submitted to the victor, and the tomb which received these heads still stands on the field. Iyeyasu traced his descent direct from Yoritomo, the founder of the Shogunate. He had, therefore, a hereditary claim to the great office, and when the battle of Seki-ga-hara had made him undisputed master of the Empire, might was added to right, and his claim became unanswerable. The dignity which had never been conferred on Nobunaga or Hideyoshi, great and powerful though both were, was willingly granted by the Emperor to Iyeyasu, who became the founder of the Tokugawa dynasty of the Shogun, which lasted from 1603, the year in which Iyeyasu received the dignity, till 1868, when, on the Restoration of the Emperor Meiji, the office came to an end for ever.

Iyeyasu, if judged by the result of his achievements both in military and civil policy, is undoubtedly the greatest name in Japanese history. Yoritomo, Nobunaga and Hideyoshi, in their several epochs, became dictators of the Empire, and retained all their powers till their deaths, but neither succeeded in founding a lasting dynasty. Ashikaga Takauji did succeed in this respect, but his successors failed to secure peace in the Empire, and their effective authority did not extend beyond the limits of the five provinces round the capital. The Hojo included great and successful administrators, but none of them attained to the highest dignity of a subject. Iyeyasu succeeded in every respect where all the others failed. By profound and far-seeing statesmanship he established the dual Government in such a way that his direct successors of his own family were able to maintain themselves at its head for over two hundred and sixty years, throughout which no one ever openly dared to question their authority or their right to exercise it. The Emperors continued to reign at Kyoto, as always the acknowledged source of all legitimate authority and the sole fountain of honour, venerated as the viceregents of the gods, but without a shadow of real power, while the Tokugawas actively directed the Government from Yedo (Tokyo), which Iyeyasu had chosen as his residence. There he built a splendid castle, and soon a large population gathered around it, a population which included all that was best of the nation in art, literature and industry. The feudal lords of the provinces were one and all obliged to guarantee their loyalty to the Shogun by passing half of each year in his capital and by leaving their wives there as hostages when they returned to their own domains. Each brought with him on his annual visit a train of samurai and servants, and all vied with each other in the display of their wealth and power while in the capital. They built and maintained imposing palaces, and through them a large part of the wealth of the provinces flowed in a steady stream to Yedo. While the capital was prosperous and splendid, the country, which, with brief interludes had been torn and desolated throughout five hundred years by civil war,



From the collection of]

[Dr. Charles How.

THE CASTLE OF OSAKA.

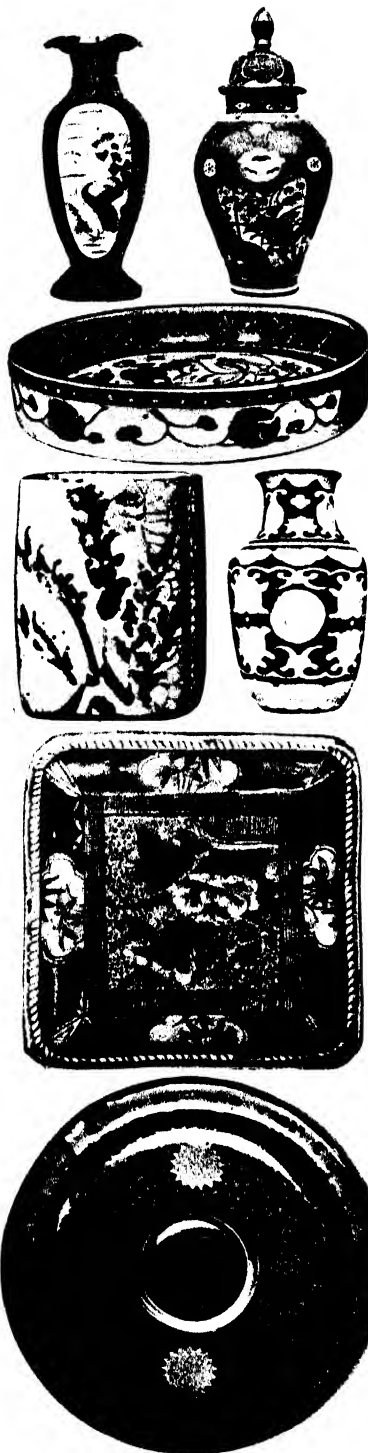
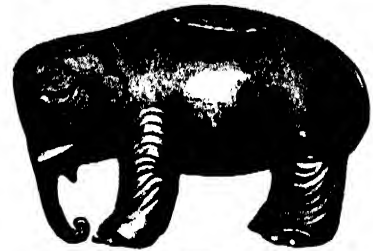
The castle was built in 1583 by Hideyoshi. The whole building is surrounded by broad moats and massive walls, in which granite blocks as big as forty feet by ten feet are found. The castle enclosed a magnificent palace, which survived the capture of the castle by Iyeyasu in 1615, but was burnt by the Tokugawa party in 1868.

at last knew the blessings of absolute and profound peace.

"The people were well and firmly governed, united and peaceful; taught to give due worship to the gods, due obedience to the laws, due submission to their superiors, due love and regard to their neighbours; civil, obliging, virtuous; in art and industry exceeding all other nations; possessed of an excellent country; enriched by mutual trade and commerce among themselves, courageous and abundantly provided with all the necessities of life."

Such is the description given of the Japanese people by a distinguished European scientist who saw them at the close of the seventeenth century, when the glory of the House of Tokugawa was at its zenith, and there is no reason to believe that his description is untrue or even exaggerated.

One hundred and fifty years later, Lord Elgin, the first British Ambassador accredited to Japan, who made the Treaty of Trade and Navigation under which all British intercourse was conducted from 1858 to 1899, was "quite as much astounded by the social and moral condition of Japan as he was by its material beauty." He described what he found when the signs of the approaching downfall of the Tokugawas were beginning to appear in domestic politics, though as yet only very faintly on the distant horizon of the future, and as yet entirely unseen by foreigners, to whom the Shogun was still "His Majesty," apparently the Imperial Sovereign and the supreme secular ruler:



By permission of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

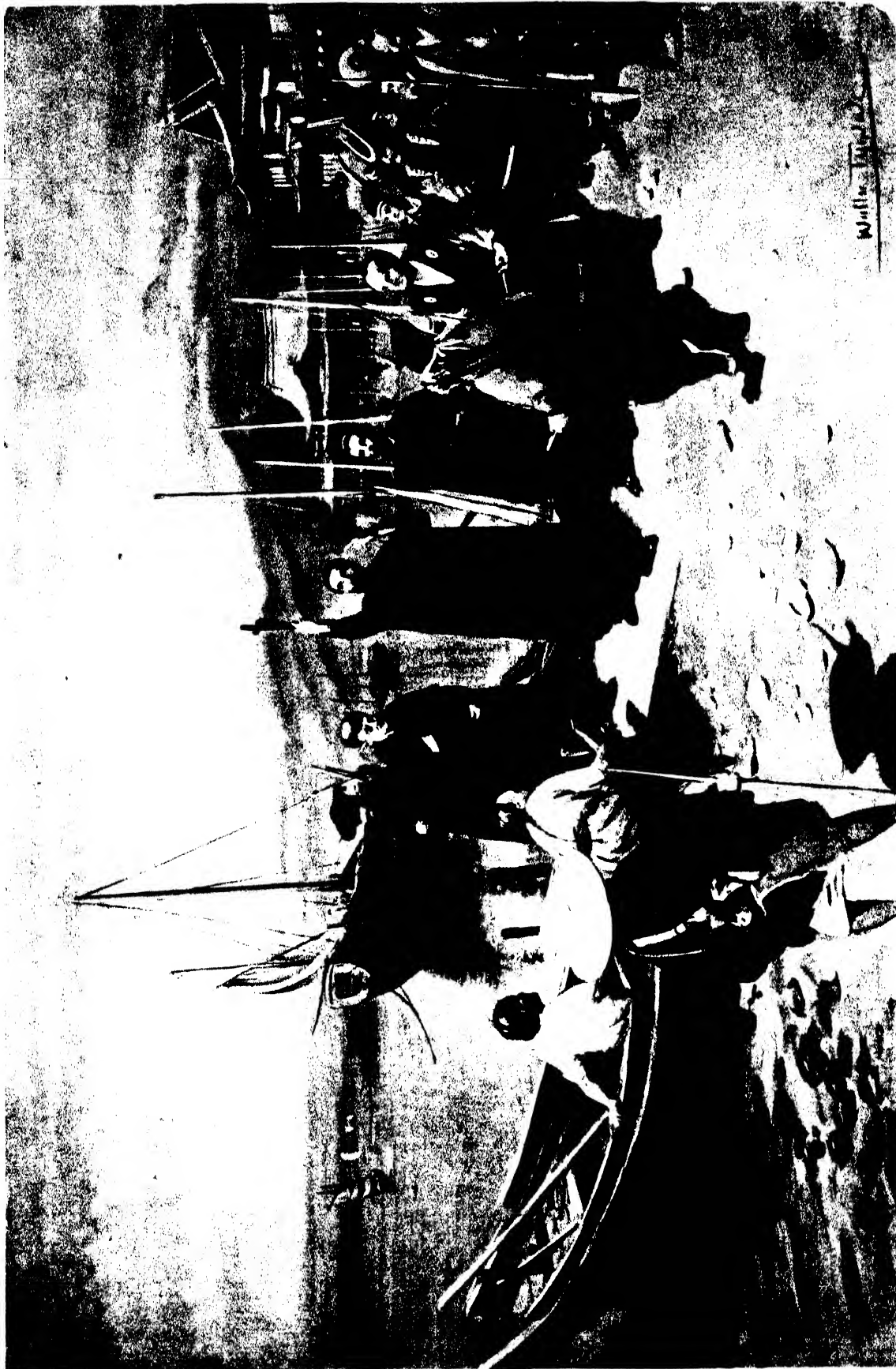
JAPANESE POTTERY.

Reading from top left to right: Vase of Isé Banko ware, 1875; vase of Arita ware, 1690; dish of Shonai ware, 1580; fire-pot of Shino ware, 1570; vase of Kishu ware, 1800; dish of Kutani ware, 1620; anké-stand of Yairaku ware, 1810.

By permission of the Victoria and Albert Museum.

JAPANESE POTTERY.

Incense-burner of Bizen ware, 1680; jar of Ko-Shigeraki ware, 1420; ornament of Araki ware, 1650; candlestick of Tozau, 1820; incense-burner of Shitoro ware, 1670; dish of Arita ware, 1740.



Painted specially for the book

THE LANDING OF ST. FRANCIS XAVIER AT KAGOSHIMA.

St. Francis Xavier landed at Kagoshima on the Feast of the Assumption, August 15th, 1549, and with him were two priests and a Japanese convert, baptized Paul Saint Foy, who was a native of Kagoshima. St. Francis was presented by the latter to the Prince of Satsuma, who received him with favour. But native priests intervened with the prince against St. Francis, and he was obliged to leave. He had stayed a year, and in this time gained more than one hundred converts.

[By Walter Tyndal, R.I.]



Painted specially for this work

[By Walter Tyndale, R.I.]

THE BOY HIDEYOSHI HAWKING FAGGOTS OF WOOD IN THE STREETS.

Hideyoshi belonged to the poorest class in Japan, and he was forced as a boy to earn a scanty living by selling faggots in the street. Like Abraham Lincoln, he raised himself by mere force of character to the most powerful position in the state, which he served well by his wise and beneficent rule.

"A perfectly paternal Government : a perfectly filial people : a community entirely self-supporting : peace within and without : no want : no ill-will between classes. This is what I find in Japan in the year 1858 after two hundred years exclusion of foreign trade and intercourse."

Whatever were the faults and errors of the Tokugawas, and they were many and great, there can be no doubt that they gave absolute peace and abundant happiness to the people whom they governed throughout the whole of their régime.

The domestic history of the Shogunate from its inception has now been told. Before proceeding to tell of its downfall, some words must be devoted to the very few foreign occurrences that were prominent during the five centuries of its existence. In the thirteenth century, while the Hojo were in power, Kublai Khan, the Mongol who won for himself the Imperial throne of China, twice attempted to invade Japan. The second and most formidable attempt was made in 1281 with a huge armada of powerful fighting ships, manned by more than one hundred and fifty thousand of the best seamen and soldiers that China could produce, the soldiers veterans of a hundred fights in not one of which had they ever known defeat. The story resembles in nearly all its details that of the Spanish Armada, nearly three centuries later. The great Chinese Emperor was irritated by the piratical excursions of Japanese seamen on his coasts, still more by the contumely with which his ambassadors were treated, and he determined to humble the truculent Islanders. The Japanese, in their small and light ships, harassed the great Chinese galleons as they approached the islands, and in repeated attacks inflicted much loss on their enemy while suffering little or none themselves. And then, when the Armada was at last anchored off

the coast of Kiusiu and the soldiers were about to land, a typhoon, the most terrible form of storm that sweeps the seas of any part of the world, broke upon the coast, and the huge fleet, anchored in close order, in narrow waters, and totally unable to manœuvre, was shattered to pieces. Only a few ships were able to slip their cables and gain the open sea, and on these, half crippled and with demoralized crews, the Japanese who, throughout the storm, had lain securely in sheltered bays unknown to the Chinese invaders, swept down and completed the work of destruction that the storm had begun. Kublai Khan's were the only attempts that have ever been made to effect a warlike invasion of Japan. Three centuries later a peaceful invasion was successfully accomplished.

Portuguese, then the most adventurous mariners and traders in the world, found their way to Japan in 1542, first as traders, then as missionaries, and in their first capacity were followed at long intervals by Dutch and English. A very prosperous trade was founded, but the successes of the traders were insignificant when compared with those of the missionaries. St. Francis Xavier, perhaps the greatest Christian missionary that the modern world has seen, landed in Japan on August 15th, 1549, and fifty years afterwards, as the result of his work and of that of his devoted and heroic followers, there were more than one million Christian converts whose sincerity could not be questioned. Then unfortunately Spanish Franciscans and Dominicans entered on the field that had hitherto been monopolized by the Jesuits, and the first break was made in the uniformity of doctrine and in the complete harmony that had hitherto prevailed amongst all Christians in Japan. The belief, too, gained strength that religious propagandism was only an antecedent step to political aggression, while the haughty demeanour adopted by the Spanish prelates, intoxicated with the pride in their offices that had been engendered in them in their own country where the Inquisition was then at the summit of its zeal, gave offence to all classes who did not share their faith. A persecution broke out, initiated by Hideyoshi, but carried to its extreme by the early Tokugawas, which in its savage bitterness and wholesale cruelty equalled that of Nero. Christians, both foreign priests and native converts, men, women and children without distinction of rank, were put to cruel deaths—burnt alive or crucified, and mercilessly tortured. Christianity was extirpated, leaving behind it a memory of suffering that caused its very name to be regarded with loathing and horror.



Painted specially for this work

[By Justin Hill.]

HIDEYOSHI'S ARMY ON ITS WAY TO CONQUER CHINA.

In June, 1592, Hideyoshi conveyed an army of one hundred and thirty thousand men across the seas to Korea with a view to invading China. The Koreans were inexperienced soldiers, and easily defeated, until the Chinese came to their aid, when the tide of success turned against the Japanese, who were then glad to discuss terms of peace.

Along with the missionaries the traders also suffered. They were driven from Japan, and not only were Europeans forbidden to land on its shores, but Japanese were also forbidden to go abroad, in both cases under pain of death. Restrictions on ship-building, forbidding the construction of any vessel of ocean-going size, ruined all the traditional maritime skill and enterprise of the people, and the period of national isolation from all the world began which was only to be closed more than two hundred years afterwards by Commodore Perry in the middle of the nineteenth century. One exception and one only

was made. The Dutch, who hated the religion of the Portuguese and Spanish as much as they did their trade rivalry, played an ignoble part in aiding the Japanese persecutors in the extermination of the native Catholic Christians. They had their reward. While all other Europeans were rigidly excluded, they were permitted to reside and trade at their little settlement of Desima in Nagasaki harbour, where they reaped enormous profits, far beyond the wildest dreams of commercial avarice; but lived and traded under conditions so humiliating and degrading that it seems incredible that they could ever have been endured by the citizens of a freedom-loving and courageous people. They were kept as close prisoners within the narrow confines of their factory, forced to forswear their religion, subjected to the most onerous exactions, and even the right of burial in Japanese soil was forbidden to them. In return for all this they are said to have carried away from Japan precious metals to the value of over one hundred millions sterling, which they received in payment for the goods they brought there, and the museums of Amsterdam and The Hague are still rich in the *chefs d'œuvres* of Japanese art, bronze, lacquer and pictures, that formed part of their homeward cargoes.

This condition of affairs continued



Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

FORTY THOUSAND HEADS BROUGHT TO IYEFASU AFTER THE BATTLE OF SEKI-GA-HARA.

The battle of Seki-ga-hara confirmed to its victor, Iyeyasu, the government of Japan, but the slaughter was very terrible. More than two hundred thousand men fell on both sides, and it took two whole days to travel over the dead bodies. A grim incident in this fray is depicted above.

till 1854, when Commodore Perry, in command of a powerful squadron of United States ships of war, appeared in the Bay of Yedo, and demanded that Japan should be opened to European intercourse. The long continued peace and isolation had had their ill-effects. Science had been advancing in Europe by leaps and bounds, but Japan had stood still, and she was in 1854, as regards military and domestic science, just as she had been at Iyeyasu's accession in 1603, while her samurai, her only fighting men, were enervated by the long peace. She was utterly incapable of resisting Perry's demands, and though regarding Europeans with equal loathing and contempt, she was forced to



Painted specially for this work

[By W. S. Baydapius.]

THE DUTCH ARRIVE AT HIRADO, 1609.

In 1609 the Dutch established a factory at Hirado, their object being to supplant their hereditary enemies, the Spanish, as traders. Though this enterprise was straightforward, they took the perfidious course on one occasion of sending forged letters to the highest authorities in Japan, which revealed a plot to murder the Shogun. The persons mentioned in the letters were Japanese Christians, who had business dealings with the Spaniards and Portuguese, and by means of false accusations they were cruelly tortured and put to death.

admit them to trade and reside in "the land of the gods," not as cringing suppliants as the Dutch had been, but as equals. Other powers soon followed the United States. The time-honoured seclusion was at an end, and the days of modern European intercourse began, and simultaneously a domestic revolution occurred which destroyed the Shogunate and restored to the Emperor the full executive authority that had been enjoyed by his remote ancestors, but usurped by military adventurers ever since the time of Yoritomo.

During the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth centuries there was a renaissance of Japanese learning, of the cultivation of the national literature and history in preference to the Chinese classics, and in its train had come a revival of the old national religion so long displaced by the exotic Buddhism. Literature, history and religion all combined to spread the doctrine of the divine right of the Imperial sovereign, to teach that he alone is the legitimate ruler of the Empire, and that the Shoguns were usurpers, whose right was founded only on might. So long as the Shogun possessed this might all went well; but when the later members of the Tokugawa dynasty failed in capacity and energy, and leaving all their duties to their officials became personally mere figureheads in their government, great nobles throughout the Empire, equal in rank to the Shogun and



Gold lacquered writing-case, with solid gold inlay on black ground, 1750.



Wallpainting in scroll form by the artist Oishi Kuranosuke, 1703.



Iron bowl used by the Zen sect for offerings. 200 years old. The above are by kind permission of Wilson Crendson, Esq.



The Seven Gods of Fortune in a treasure-ship. Print by Hiroshige I., 1797-1858. By permission of Victoria and Albert Museum.

Shogun would be promptly followed by the concentration of all the fighting strength of the Empire under the Imperial standard for the full achievement of the war-cry. But while the leaders of the revolution had been eager to use the spirit of that cry in furtherance of their desire to overthrow the Shogun, they knew full well that its realization was

inferior to him only in wealth and strength, began to fret against a domination that had been imposed on them by the irresistible military and political genius of Iyeyasu. A plausible pretext was only required to convert their smouldering discontent into active rebellion, and that was furnished by the opening of Japan to foreign intercourse. The Shogun had proved a traitor to his sovereign and his country. He had permitted the land of the gods to be desecrated by the presence of the unholy Barbarians. He had been false to the trust that had been reposed in him as the military guardian of the Empire, and his sway must be ended. Once more there was civil war, and it ended in the complete defeat of the Shogun's adherents. In 1868, the last of the Tokugawas surrendered the great office that had been transmitted to him from Iyeyasu, and withdrew from his capital to pass the remainder of his life as an ordinary nobleman on his country estates.

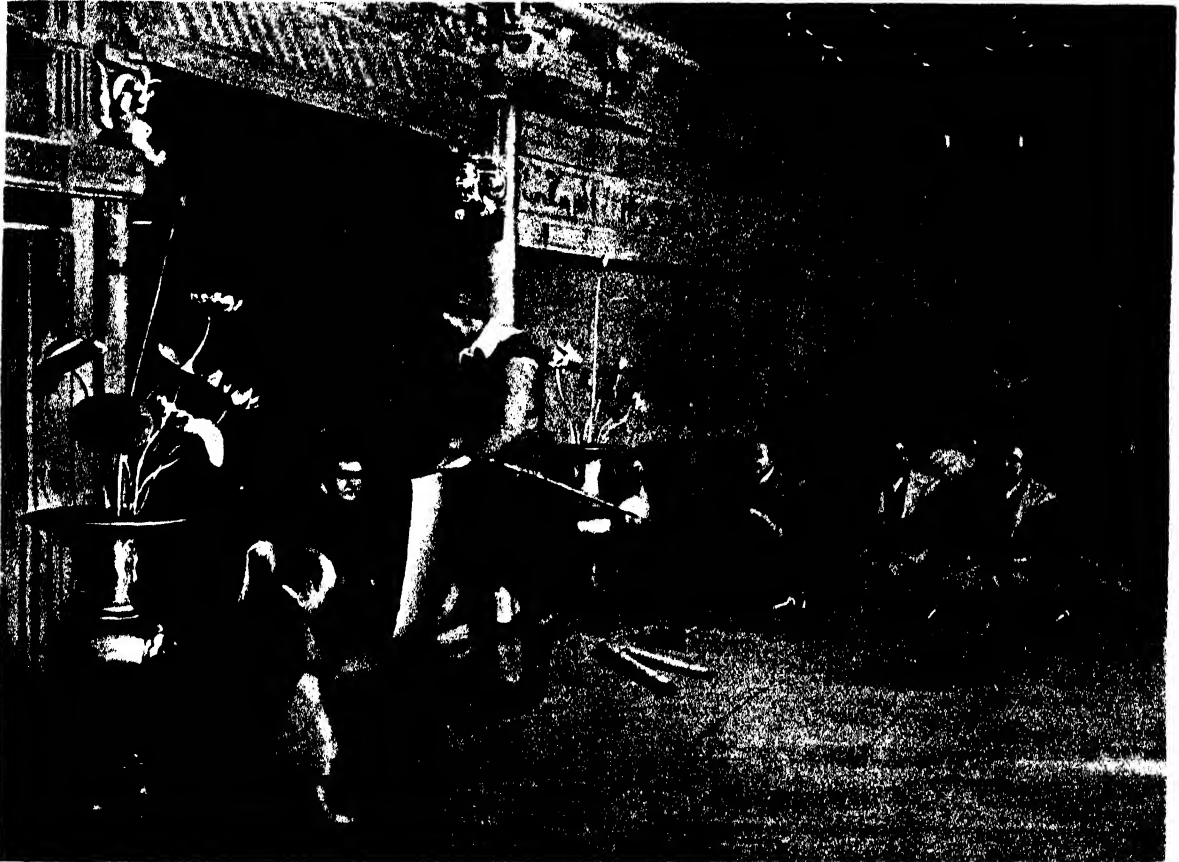
A new Emperor, a boy in years, had just come to the Imperial throne, the one hundred and twenty-first of his line in direct descent from Jimmu. It was in his name that the civil war, in its last stages, had been fought. "Honour the Emperor and expel the Barbarian" was the war-cry which united under one banner feudal lords long antagonistic to each other and their samurai; and it was fondly believed that the deposition of the



The priest Nichiren alone in the Tsukuhara Mountains in midwinter. By the artist Kuniyoshi. By kind permission of Wilson Crendson, Esq.

a vain dream, that the days in which Japan could seclude herself from the world and maintain her territorial integrity unimpaired were gone, and that her only hope for the future lay in the establishment of a strong centralized Government and in the development of her material resources. As they could not get rid of Europeans, the next best course was to learn from them all they had to teach, to acquire all the modern sciences of which Japan was so ignorant, and to raise Japan and her people to the political, scientific and industrial level that the great nations of Europe had already attained.

The attainment of these ends required a double revolution, a complete change in the whole system of government—not only in the dual government of Emperor and Shogun, which was already at an end, but in the abolition of feudalism and of the executive autonomy hitherto exercised by the feudal



Painted specially for this work

ITYEYASU GIVES AN AUDIENCE TO WILL ADAMS, 1600.

[By Walter Tappan, R.I.]

Will Adams was received by the Shogun at the palace within Osaka Castle. Through the medium of a Japanese interpreter, who spoke Portuguese, questions were asked concerning commerce. Comment was also made on the relations of his country with the Spanish, and the Dutch, whom Adams was careful to explain came for trading only.

lords throughout the provinces—and an equally complete change in the national civilization. The precedent of the days of Shotoku Daishi was to be followed. Then the nation was sinicized, now it was to be Europeanized. All the customs, philosophy, science, law, polity, that had served so well for twelve centuries, were to be set aside in favour of an entirely new system of civilization of whose main elements the majority of the people were almost entirely ignorant, and of which the little that was known had hitherto served only to arouse feelings of hatred and contempt. Even the statesmen, who were at the head of the new movement, had little more to guide them in their decision than the knowledge that Japan was weak and European powers strong, and that history showed that weak Asiatic states had ever been an easy prey to aggressive powers of the West. Japan's only hope of avoiding the fate of India and China lay in herself, in consolidating and fostering her inherent strength, so as to be able to defend herself against any assailant, and that end could only be attained by a drastic revolution

in all her methods of government and training. It was resolved, and the young Emperor declared the resolution to his people in an oath, which he solemnly swore before the assembled nobles of the realm, that "all the vicious and uncivilized customs of antiquity shall be broken through and intellect and learning sought for throughout the world so that the foundations of the Empire may be firmly established."

The decision once taken was promptly put in force. The Emperor and his court were removed from Kioto, the city hallowed by many sacred memories of the long line of divine sovereigns, whose home it had been for more than a thousand years, and the new Imperial capital was fixed at Yedo, henceforward called Tokio, or Eastern capital, a mere insignificant and impotent Asiatic despotism, rent from end to end by internal discord, bankrupt in finance, hidebound in a haughty and ignorant conservatism, with a people destitute of all political consciousness, the majority of whom were serfs in everything but name, into one of the great military and commercial powers of the world, solvent, united in whole-hearted, ungrudging patriotism, with a constitutional Government and a people keenly alive to all the rights and privileges of freeborn citizens. It was the achievement of statesmen, distinguished alike by courage, industry, prudence and genius, inspired to some degree no doubt by personal ambition, but mainly by a fervid patriotism and a

mushroom city, however great and splendid, with a history of less than three centuries. But it had through those centuries been the seat of the *de facto* government, and it was rightly thought that the people would more speedily adapt themselves to the new administration of the Emperor, if directed from the city which they had been so long accustomed to regard as the seat of all executive authority.

The Emperor Meiji succeeded to the throne on the 3rd of February, 1867, being then a boy in the fifteenth year of his age. He died at his palace in Tokio, on the 30th of July, 1912, his reign, the longest throughout all authentic Japanese history, having thus extended over forty-five years. The history of his reign is that of Japan's rise from



[Photo by]

[Underwood & Underwood.]

KIN-TAI-KYO BRIDGE.

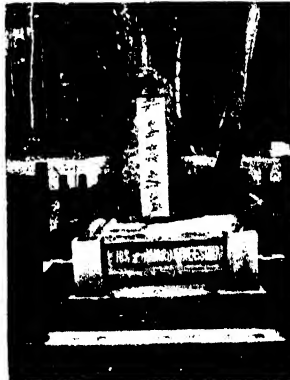
The famous bridge called Kin-Tai-Kyo at Iwakuni on the Inland Sea. The bridge is built in five semicircular arches, one of which is rebuilt every five years, so that the whole bridge is renewed every twenty-five years. Each arch measures thirty feet



[Photo by]

YŌ-MEI-MON.

The beautiful gate of the mausoleum of Icyasau at Nikkōsan, "the mountain of the sun's brightness," the burial-place of the Tokugawa Shoguns. The Nikkō shrines, which were built during the first half of the seventeenth century, are the most splendid in Japan.



TOMB OF THE REV. J. H. NEESHIMA.

The Rev. J. H. Neeshima was one of the first native converts to Protestant Christianity, and president of the Doshisha, a Christian university at Kioto, founded in 1875 by the American Board Mission.



DAIBUTSU.

The colossal bronze statue of Buddha at Kamakura, fifty feet in height and ninety-seven feet in circumference, cast in the year 1252, one of the most imposing statues in the world. The eyes are of pure gold and the boss on the forehead of silver.



[Underwood & Underwood.]

STONE LANTERNS.

The temple of Sumiyoshi was erected in honour of three gods, where passing ships could be seen, and the stone lanterns are thank-offerings from those who have been saved from the perils of the sea. The original temple was built by the Empress Jingo.

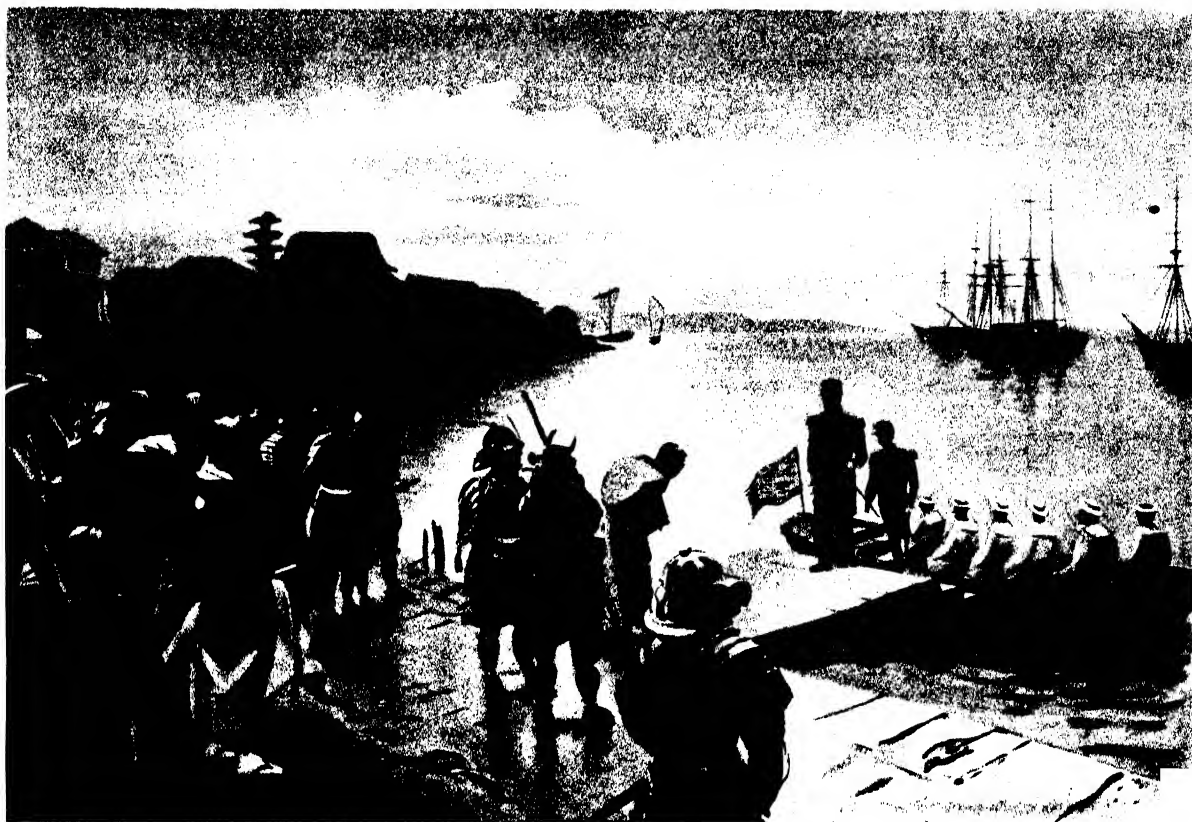


Painted specially for this work

[By H. M. Burton.]

WILL ADAMS BUILDS SHIPS FOR THE SHOGUN.

Adams was born in 1575 at Gillingham, near Chatham, England, and at an early age he was prenticed to the seafaring life. In order to engage in the Dutch trade with the East, he shipped as pilot in 1598 with a company of five ships outward bound from the Texel. Adams' ship the "Charity," which was the only vessel to survive the journey, reached Japan in April, 1600. There he was employed in shipbuilding, and his practical knowledge of it raised him greatly in the esteem of the Shogun, who presented him with an estate. He was not, however, allowed to return to England.



Painted specially for this work

[By Walter T. G. 1853]

THE LANDING OF ADMIRAL PERRY IN TOKIO HARBOUR, 8th JULY, 1853.

For over two hundred years Japan was a closed country to all foreigners except a few Dutch traders. In 1853, however, with a view to opening trade, the United States Government sent Commodore Perry in command of a small fleet to Tokio, to open negotiations with Japan. After presenting a letter from the American President explaining the object of his mission Perry promised to return in a year for an answer.

devoted loyalty that grudged no toil or sacrifice in the service of Emperor and country ; but these statesmen would have failed in much that they accomplished had they not received from the first the Emperor's sympathy and help. As a boy, he was, of course, entirely in their hands ; but from his arrival at early manhood until his death no reform was made, no new step of progress undertaken, that was not submitted to him at its initiation, carefully considered, and approved of before its final adoption. The fact that this was so, manifested by his own Imperial rescripts, reconciled even the most bigoted fanatics of the ancient conservatism to changes which they loathed in their hearts. Their own cherished principles taught them that what the Emperor approved of must be right and what he willed must be done. The first and greatest reform that was made was the total abolition of feudalism, the surrender by the feudal lords of all their domains and of all their old rights and privileges. Their lands, in some individual cases covering an entire province, with all their revenues thus became the property of the Government. All the land throughout the Empire was, in fact, nationalized, its former owners receiving due but moderate compensation, and the rents collected from it became the main source of the Imperial revenue. Local laws and coinage and class distinctions, with all their accompanying sumptuary laws and social privileges and disabilities, were abolished, and then, when the nation, no longer divided into antagonistic principalities, was really amalgamated into one homogeneous whole, under a centralized bureaucracy, fortified by the divine prestige of the Emperor, an entry was boldly and vigorously made on the paths of economic reform.

Railways, posts and telegraphs, marine transport, banks, factories, a national mint, education, hospitals, law and prison reform were only a few among all the new factors in economic and domestic life that were initiated by the Government during the first decade of its existence. The army and the

navy were founded, the former no longer confined to the privileged samurai, but recruited by conscription from all classes of the people. Trade was relieved from the social stigma that the spirit of feudalism had placed upon it and rapidly increased. Industry, hitherto only sufficient to supply domestic requirements, gradually grew so as to leave a large surplus of manufactures for export. The press became a powerful influence in political life, and not the least marked among all the reforms was that which made all religions free and relieved Christianity from the inhibition that had degraded it as "the evil sect" since the persecution of the seventeenth century.

The avowed objects of the Emperor's ministers in all they did were to educate the people so as to qualify them for the exercise of constitutional privileges, to develop their military strength so as to render them secure against foreign aggression, and to promote industry, so that means should not be lacking to defray national expenditure that must steadily increase. But behind these objects, there were two others to which everything else was ancillary. The first was the recovery of the full rights of legislative and executive autonomy over all persons in the Empire of which Japan had been deprived under the system of extritoriality that was provided in the first treaties concluded with Western powers. Under this system all Europeans resident in Japan were exempt from the jurisdiction of Japanese law and authority, and were subject only to the laws of their own countries administered by their own consular officials. It was one that was universal in all Oriental countries, that was absolutely necessary when it was conceded by the Shogun; but that was soon recognized by the Imperial Government as a national stigma, which placed Japan on a lower level of civilization than that of the poorest and weakest nation of the West. The second object was to secure the safety of Korea. Both objects were attained in full measure, though only after long and patient struggles.

In 1890, the Constitution was put in force, and the first Parliament was opened by the Emperor in person. The reform of the law was soon afterwards completed, and in a constitutional country provided



Painted specially for this work

[By Justin Hill.]

A JAPANESE ASSAULT ON AN ENGLISH PARTY NEAR YOKOHAMA, SEPTEMBER, 1862.

The reception of foreigners in Japan was strongly resented by the people, and many murderous assaults occurred. The attack depicted by our artist on a lady and three English merchants near Yokohama was due to an imperfect understanding of Japanese ceremony. The lady escaped unhurt, but one of the men was killed and the two others badly injured. The Japanese Government at once apologized, paid an indemnity and punished the murderers.



GENERAL COUNT KUROKI.

A samurai of Satsuma, born in 1844. Fought throughout the civil wars of the Restoration and of the Satsuma rebellion. Commanded the sixth army division in the war with China and the first army in the war with Russia, taking part in most of the great battles, including Yalu, Liao-Yang, Shaho and Mukden.



GENERAL COUNT OKU.

A samurai of Fukuoka, born in 1846. Fought in the Satsuma rebellion, commanded the fifth army division in the war with China and the second army in the war with Russia. Captured the fortress of Nanshan, and won the battles of Telissu and Ta-shih-chiao, and took part in those of Liao-Yang, Shaho and Mukden.

already told. We must now turn backwards to recount another invasion, on this occasion one the history of which is unimpeachable. Hideyoshi's ambition and pride were equally boundless, so much so that he has been well described as the Napoleon of Japan. When he had brought all Japan to his feet, he meditated the conquest of China, and as a preliminary to that exploit he invaded Korea. His



[Photos by]

GENERAL COUNT NOGI.

A samurai of Choshin, born 1849. Fought in the Satsuma rebellion and in the war with China. Commanded the third army in the war with Russia. Was entrusted with the operations against Port Arthur, which was taken after a siege of seven months. Took part in the battle of Mukden. General Nogi and his wife killed themselves before their family altar on the death of the late Emperor.

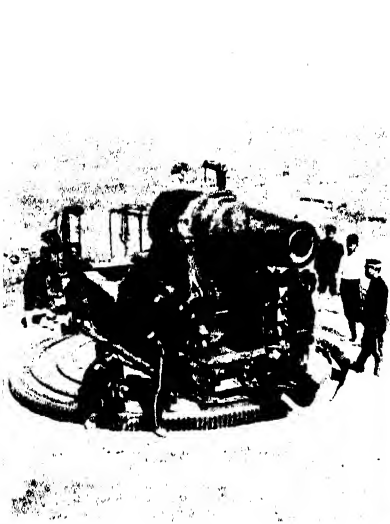
armies and fleets carried on a war in that kingdom which lasted, with varying fortune, from 1592 to 1598, when it was terminated by Hideyoshi's death. The Japanese soldiers were then withdrawn, being required for service in the civil war that was about to break out in their own land, having acquired, at a vast expenditure of life and treasure, little but glory, and that by no means entirely untarnished, but leaving in Korea such desolation and ruin that the wretched country never properly recovered from them. Japan always claimed that the two conquests gave her the rights of a suzerain, but apart from that she was vitally interested in saving Korea from falling into the possession of an aggressive European power, such as Russia, which was, in the last half of the nineteenth century, on the full tide of her Far



[Underwood & Underwood]

FIELD-MARSHAL PRINCE OYAMA.

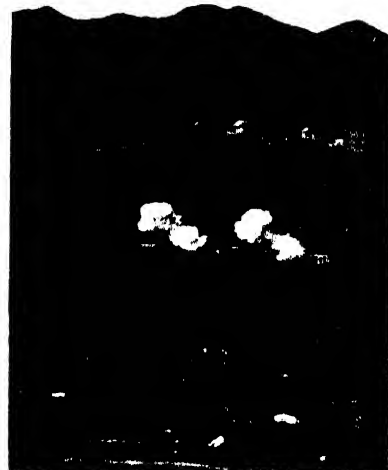
A samurai of Satsuma, born in 1842. One of the founders of the modern Japanese Army. Fought in the civil wars of the Restoration and of the Satsuma rebellion. Commanded the second army in the war with China, and was commander-in-chief of the Japanese armies in Manchuria in the war with Russia. Was created prince, the highest rank in the peerage, equivalent to duke, after the war.



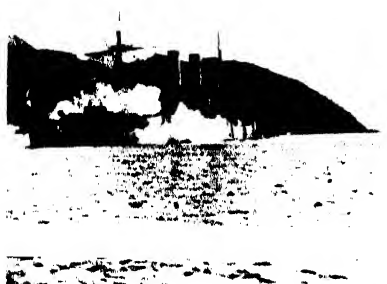
Howitzer used against the Russians in Port Arthur. Fires shell weighing 500lbs.



Wounded men of Nogi's army. Taken in the hospital camp in Manchuria.



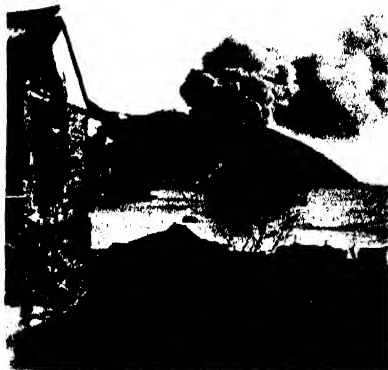
Battery of 11-inch siege guns firing 500lb. shells into Port Arthur.



500 b. shell bursting against the Russian warship "Pallada" at Port Arthur.



Russians advancing to take the place of fallen comrades in the outer forts, Port Arthur.



[Photos by]

Looking across the harbour at Port Arthur from a warehouse wrecked by Japanese shells.



Two companies of Nogi's victorious army manoeuvring for positions to attack the enemy.



[Underwood & Underwood.]

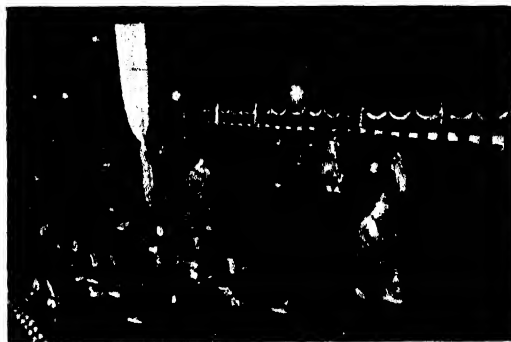
Interior of a Russian fort at Port Arthur. Taken during the siege.

Eastern aggrandizement. In the hands of such a power, Korea, with its magnificent ice-free harbours, would form a military and naval basis that would for ever be full of menace to Japan's national safety, even to her very existence. To prevent that she made long-continued and patient efforts to induce Korea to enter upon the paths of reform

ignorant and corrupt Korean Government. Two great wars had to be fought, the first against China in 1894-5 and the second against Russia in 1904-5, before Korea could be freed from this paralysing influence. In both success, untarnished by a single defeat, attended Japanese arms both on sea and land, and their result made Japan paramount in Korea. But the internal corruption and disorganization of that country nullified all the efforts that continued to be honestly made by Japan to enable her to stand alone, to bring her into line with modern progress; and no hope being left of her permanent and efficient reform, Japan took the last great step, and in the year 1910 Korea was formally incorporated in the Empire.

The Emperor Meiji on his death left to his only son, his successor on the throne, dominions far more extensive than those over which he ruled at his own accession, comprising not only all the ancient kingdom of Korea, but the island of Formosa and the south of the Liao Tung peninsula, Formosa the spoil of the war with China and Liao Tung of that with Russia.

He left him a people who have shown that their military efficiency and courage render them the equal of the proudest military nations of Europe, whose industrial capacity enables them to conduct a foreign trade exceeding one hundred millions sterling in its annual value, who are openly aspiring to the hegemony of the Pacific, and to the monopoly of the great commercial markets of China, who are absolutely united among themselves, and who, while fully conscious of all their personal rights as free citizens of a Constitutional Empire, are no less devoted than were their forefathers in unquestioning loyalty to their sovereign, to whom they still reverently bow as the vicegerent of the Gods of Heaven.



The funeral procession of the late Emperor took place at night. Buddhist priests are seen carrying the sacred banners.

and progress on which she herself had so conspicuously advanced, but they were all in vain.

Korea not only proved to be irreclaimable, but Japan was throughout continuously thwarted in all her efforts, first by China and secondly by Russia, each of which in turn was able to obtain a dominating influence on the weak,

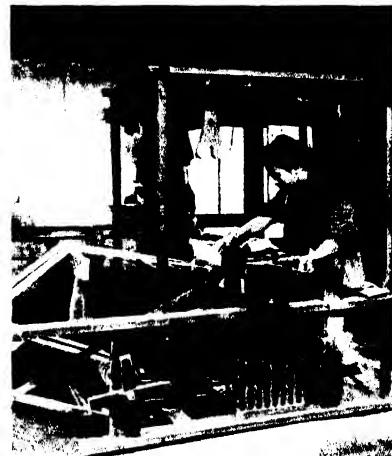


Photos by]

Japanese hawking their wares, which consist of everything from sweets to popular illustrated magazines, at a railway station.



A Japanese tea garden at Uji, and one of the most famous plantations in the country, situated on a beautifully wooded slope.



[Underwood & Underwood.

A peasant housewife sitting at a loom weaving cotton cloth. She holds the shuttle in her hand ready to pass through the warp.

